

# THE ATHENÆUM

Journal of English and Foreign Literature, Science, and the Fine Arts

No. 2133.

LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1868.

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## UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.— FACULTY OF ARTS AND LAWS, including the Department of the APPLIED SCIENCES.

THE SESSION will commence on FRIDAY, October 2. INTRODUCTORY LECTURE at 3 p.m., by Professor G. CROOM ROBERTSON, M.A. Subject: "Philosophy as a Subject of Study."

### CLASSES.

Latin—Professor Seely, M.A.  
Greek—Professor Malden, M.A.  
Sanskrit—Professor Goldstickler.  
Hebrew (Goldstickler)—Professor Marks.  
Arabic and Persian—Professor Eliu, Ph.D.  
Tibetan—Professor C. P. Brown.  
Marathi—Lecturer, Mr. W. S. Price.  
Hindustani and Hindi—Lecturer, Mr. K. M. Dutt.  
Bengali—Teacher, Mr. Ghulam Hyder.  
English Language and Literature—Professor H. Morley.  
French Language and Literature—Professor Cassel, LL.D.  
Italian Language and Literature—Professor G. Volpe.  
German Language and Literature—Professor Heimann, Ph.D.  
Comparative Grammar—Professor Key, M.A. F.R.S.  
Mathematics—Professor T. A. Hirst, F.R.S.  
Applied Mathematics and Mechanics—Professor B. T. Moore, M.A. C.E.  
Physics—Professor G. Carey Foster, B.A.  
Physiology—Professor Sharpey, M.D. F.R.S.  
Chemistry and Practical Chemistry—Professor Williamson, F.R.S.  
Engineering—Professor George Fuller, C.E.  
Architecture—Professor T. Hayter Lewis, F.S.A. F.I.R.A.  
Geology (Golden Age Professorship)—Professor Morris, F.G.S.  
Mineralogy—Professor Morris, F.G.S.  
Botany—Professor Oliver, F.R.S.  
Zoology (Recent and Fossil)—Professor Grant, M.D. F.R.S.  
Philosophy of Mind and Logic—Professor G. Croom Robertson, M.A.  
Ancient and Modern History—Professor Beesly, M.A.  
Political Economy—Professor J. E. Cairnes, M.A.  
Law—Professor J. A. Russell, Q.C.  
Jurisprudence—Professor H. J. Roby, M.A.

THREE ANDREWS' ENTRANCE EXHIBITIONS, each of the annual value of £50, and tenable for three years, will be held at the commencement of the Session. The Competitive Examination for these Exhibitions will be in Classics, Mathematics, and Physics, and will be held on the 25th and 30th of September.  
Prizes, and the Regulations for the above and other Exhibitions, Scholarships, and Prizes, may be obtained at the Office of the College.  
The Session of the Faculty of Medicine will commence on Thursday, October 1.  
HENRY MORLEY, Dean of the Faculty.  
JOHN ROBSON, B.A., Secretary to the Council.

## OWENS COLLEGE, MANCHESTER, (in connexion with the University of London).

THE SESSION 1868-9 WILL COMMENCE ON MONDAY, the 24th of October, 1868, and terminate on Friday the 25th of June, 1869.

Principal—J. G. GREENWOOD, B.A. Fell. Univ. Coll. Lond.  
Classics—Prof. J. G. Greenwood, B.A.; Lecturer, Mr. A. S. Wilkins, M.A.  
English Language, and Literature, Ancient and Modern History—Prof. A. W. Ward, M.A.  
Mathematics—Prof. Thomas Barker, M.A.; Lecturer, Mr. A. T. Bentley, B.A.  
Natural Philosophy—Prof. Wm. Jack, M.A.  
Civil and Mechanical Engineering—Prof. Osborne Reynolds, B.A.  
Logic and Mental and Moral Philosophy, Political Economy—Prof. Wm. Stanley Jevons, M.A. F.R.S.  
Jurisprudence—Prof. R. C. Clifton, M.A. F.R.S.  
Chemistry (Theoretical and Applied)—Prof. H. E. Roscoe, B.A. F.R.S.; Assistant, Mr. C. Schorlemmer, F.R.S.  
Natural History—Prof. W. C. Williamson, F.R.S.  
Oriental Languages and Literature, Modern Languages and Literature—Prof. T. Theodorou.  
Drawing—Mr. William Walker.

Additional Lectures, on which the attendance is optional and without fees, are given on "The Hebrew of the Old Testament," and on "The Greek of the New Testament."  
Various SCHOLARSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, and PRIZES have been founded in the College for the promotion of the Study of Classics, Mathematics, English, Chemistry, Political Economy, and Natural History.

THREE ENTRANCE EXHIBITIONS of £50, each, and THREE WHITWORTH EXHIBITIONS of £25, each, are offered for competition in October, 1868.

Prizes for the Day and for the Evening Classes and a special Prospectus for the CIVIL and MECHANICAL ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT will be forwarded, gratis, on application to the Registrar.

THE OWENS COLLEGE CALENDAR for 1868-9, price 2s. 6d. (7s. 6d. net), and the 'SYLLABUS for the Evening Classes,' (By post, £1) may be obtained at the College, or from the booksellers in Manchester.

J. G. GREENWOOD, Principal.  
J. HOLME NICHOLSON, Registrar.

## OWENS COLLEGE, MANCHESTER.— SESSION 1868-9.

The Principal will attend at the College for the purpose of ADMITTING STUDENTS to the Day Classes, on Wednesday, the 24th of September, Thursday, the 1st, and Friday, the 2nd, of October, from 11 a.m. to 2 p.m.; and for admitting New Students to the Evening Classes, on the 5th and 6th of October, from half-past 6 to 8 p.m.

J. G. GREENWOOD, Principal.  
J. HOLME NICHOLSON, Registrar.

## ST. PETER'S COLLEGIATE SCHOOL, KING'S CROSS, LONDON.

FOUNDED IN 1841. In Union with the University of London. The Session commences on SEPTEMBER 15th, and lasting Thirteen Weeks, will be Five Guineas.  
Proprietary School. Boys receive a good general Education in English, French, Latin, Greek (optionally), Mathematics (or Commercial Procedure), and the Elements of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry.  
Scholarships will be awarded.  
List of Old Pupils distinguished in their Professions, and in the Army, Navy, and Church, will be sent on application.

## KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—The PROSPECTUS for 1868-9 of the different Departments is now ready, and will be sent free of charge on application to J. W. CONNOR, Esq., King's College, London, putting the word "Prospectus" outside the cover.

## ROYAL ACADEMY OF MUSIC.— Instituted in 1822. Incorporated by Royal Charter.

THE WINTER SESSION will commence on MONDAY, the 21st of September next. Candidates for admission as Students must attend at the Institution for examination, at 2 o'clock, on Saturday, the 19th of September.

Royal Academy of Music, 4, Tottenham-court-road, Hanover-square.

## THE SIXTEENTH ANNUAL WINTER EXHIBITION will OPEN on MONDAY, November the 2nd.

Contributions of the Artists will be RECEIVED from the 1st to the 10th of October, at the FRENCH GALLERY, 120, Pall Mall.

## BELFAST ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF PAINTINGS (Oil and Water-Colour).—THIRD SEASON.

—This Exhibition will OPEN for the Season on the 1st of OCTOBER. Artists intending to exhibit will please communicate at once with the undersigned, who will forward full particulars. MARCUS WARD & Co. 13, Donegal-place, Belfast. 1st August, 1868.

## NOTICE.—ROYAL SCHOOL OF MINES, JERMYN-STREET, London.—The Session will begin on MONDAY, the 8th of OCTOBER.

Prospectuses may be had on application. GREENHAM REEKS, Registrar.

## ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S HOSPITAL and COLLEGE.—WINTER SESSION, 1868-9.

The Introductory Address will be given by Mr. THOMAS SMITH, on THURSDAY, October 1st, at 3 p.m. Students can reside within the Hospital walls, subject to the College regulations.  
All information respecting both the Hospital and College may be obtained on application either personally or by letter, to the Resident Wardens, Mr. MORRANT BAKER, and at the Museum or Library.

## ST. GEORGE'S HOSPITAL.—The NEW SCHOOL BUILDINGS will be OPENED for Students on the 1st of OCTOBER, when an INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS will be delivered by Dr. ALCAND, F.R.S., Regius Professor of Physics, Oxford, at Two p.m.

## MEDICAL EDUCATION.—ST. MARY'S HOSPITAL MEDICAL SCHOOL, PADDINGTON, will OPEN on OCTOBER 1st, 1868.

In addition to the usual Courses, special instruction is provided in Operative Minor Surgery and Bandaging, Ophthalmic, Aural and Dental Surgery, Comparative Anatomy, Histology, and Pathology; all of which are taught practically by Demonstrators as well as Lectures. For Prospectus apply to ERNEST HART, Dean of the School.

## ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL MEDICAL SCHOOL.—SESSION 1868 and '69. GENERAL INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS will be delivered by Dr. BARNES, on THURSDAY, 1st October, at Three o'clock p.m., after which the DISTRIBUTION OF PRIZES will take place.

Gentlemen entering have the option of paying £40. for the first year, a similar sum for the second, and so on, for each succeeding year; or, by paying £60. at once, of becoming perpetual Students.

## MEDICAL OFFICERS.

Honorary Consulting Physician—Dr. Barker.  
Dr. J. Risdon Bennett, Dr. Gooden, Dr. Peacock, Dr. Bristowe, Dr. Barnes, Mr. Solly, Mr. Le Gros Clark, Mr. Simon, Dr. Clapton, Dr. Gerris, Mr. Sydney Jones, Mr. J. Croft, Mr. Whitfield.

Medicine—Dr. Barker and Dr. Peacock. Surgery—Mr. Solly and Mr. Clapton. Physiology—Dr. Bristowe and Mr. Ord. Descriptive Anatomy—Mr. Sydney Jones. Anatomy in the Dissecting Room—Mr. Rainey, Mr. J. Croft, and Mr. W. W. Wagstaffe. Chemistry and Practical Chemistry—Dr. Albert J. Bernays. Midwifery—Dr. Barnes. General Pathology—Mr. Simon. Botany—Dr. J. Wale Hicks. Comparative Anatomy—Mr. Ord. Materia Medica—Dr. Clapton. Forensic Medicine—Dr. Stone and Dr. Gerris. Vaccination—Dr. Gerris. Ophthalmic Surgery—Mr. Sydney Jones. Dental Surgery—Mr. Elliott. Pathological Chemistry—Dr. Thudichum. Microscopical Anatomy—Mr. Rainey. Demonstrations Morbid Anatomy—Dr. J. Leese.

R. BARNES, M.D., Dean.  
R. G. WHITFIELD, Medical Secretary.

For entrance or Prospectuses, and for information relating to Prizes and all other matters, apply to Mr. WHITFIELD, Medical Secretary, The Manor House, St. Thomas's Hospital, Newington, Surrey, S.E.

## QUEEN'S COLLEGE, GALWAY.

### FACULTY OF MEDICINE.

SESSION 1868-69.

THE FIRST MATRICULATION EXAMINATION for the Session 1868-69 will be held on FRIDAY, the 23rd of October. The Examinations for Scholarships and Exhibitions will commence on THURSDAY, the 22nd day of October.

By a recent regulation of the Council, all Scholarships and Exhibitions of the second, third and fourth years may now be competed for by Students who have attained the requisite standing in any Medical School recognized by the Senate of the Queen's College, and have passed the Matriculation Examination in the College.

At the ensuing Examination Eight Scholarships, of the value of £25, each, will be offered for competition, viz.—Two to Students of the First, Second, Third, and Fourth Years respectively. In addition, four Exhibitions of £10, each will be offered; two to Students of the First and Second years respectively; and two Exhibitions of £20, each—one to Students of the Third and Fourth years respectively.

All Scholars are exempt from payment of a moiety of the fees for the classes attended.

By order of the President, WM. LUPTON, M.A., Registrar.

5th Sept. 1868.

## NEWSPAPER PROPERTY.—The Advertiser, who has launched several successful Journals, will be glad to meet with a GENTLEMAN who will INVEST in a NEW PAPER, which is sure to be a great success. Letters, from Principals only, containing appointment, will receive attention.—Address N. P., Post-office, Fleet-street.

A LITERARY GENTLEMAN, conversant with Four Modern Languages, wishes to be EMPLOYED either in some Literary or Professional Engagement, or as Secretary and Amanuensis.—Address J. D. L., Post-office, Charing Cross.

## TO PUBLISHERS and BOOKSELLERS.—

The Advertiser seeks AN ENGAGEMENT. Has had experience in the City and at the West-end. Thirteen years—eight as Manager—in one of the largest Houses. Could introduce good business.—A. R. Mr. Alexander's, News-agent, 24, Old Cavendish-street, Cavendish-square, W.

## A CONSTANT READER at the BRITISH MUSEUM wishes for EMPLOYMENT in making Extracts, Genealogical or Literary Researches, or in any Work of a similar nature. Letters addressed to T. P., 15, Henrietta-street, Brunswick-square, W.C., will meet with prompt attention.

## MRS. E. S. DALLAS (Miss GLYN) announces that she intends to devote her leisure from Public Engagements to PRIVATE and CLASS TEACHING of READING and ELUCIDATIONS at her residence, 6, Hanover-square, London. Mrs. Dallas begins her School Teaching on the 20th September.

## LECTURES ON THE ART OF READING ALOUD in Churches, Schools, and Families.—The Rev. ALX. J. D. DORSEY will begin TWO COURSES on MONDAY NEXT, at his House, 13, PRINCES-SQUARE, W., at 4 and 8 p.m. Fee for six Lectures, Half-a-Guinea.—Classes at 5 and 8.

## W. HEPWORTH DIXON, Esq., has kindly consented to deliver a Lecture, ON WILD LIFE on the PRAIRIES, in the Albert Hall, Brompton-road, Maidenhead, Kentish Town, on WEDNESDAY, September 16th, for the Benefit of a Local Society.—Chair taken at Eight o'clock, by Mr. ARTHUR GARY, Esq. LL.B.—Admission, Reserved Seats, 1s.; Body of Hall, 6d.

## SHORTHAND.—PITMAN'S PHONOGRAPHY.—Phonography is taught in Class, at 7s. 6d.; or Private Instruction given, personally or by post, for 12s. 10s. Perfect Course of Lessons. London: 50, Paternoster-row, E.C.

## A FRENCH TUTOR, with a Degree, is desirous of an ENGAGEMENT in an English School or Family.—Address, for references, Mr. W. E. SMITH, Young Men's Christian Association, 105, Aldersgate-street, London, E.C.

## MONSIEUR DE FONTANIER'S COURSE OF FRENCH INSTRUCTION. Lectures, Classes, and Private Lessons, for Civil and Military Candidates, &c., continue to be held at his residence.

THE COMPOSITION CLASS assemblies on WEDNESDAYS, at 11 o'clock. The New Examination-Papers are now ready. 1A, Devonshire-street, Portland-place, W.

## GORDON COLLEGE FOR LADIES, 4, QUEEN-SQUARE, W.C. conducted by PROFESSOR R. distinguished in Theology, Literature, Science and Art will OPEN on the 8th of OCTOBER.—For Prospectuses, apply to the LADY RESIDENT, AGNES CHARLES, Hon. Sec.

## PUPILS PREPARED for MATRICULATION AND FIRST B.A. (London, Oxford and Cambridge, Local, Preliminary, Medical and other Examinations, by a GENTLEMAN who has taken high Honours in all the above Examinations. Instruction in Classics, Mathematics, English and Elementary Science. Highest References.—Address, by letter, B. care of Mr. Murby, 32, Boulevard-street, Fleet-street, E.C.

## ORGAN.—Lessons and Practice, at 143, Strand, on a fine Instrument (with two Manuals and full Pedal Compas).—Pupils and Students may arrange terms on application to W. V. S., 143, Strand (Organist, St. Michael, Stockwell).

## PARTIAL BOARD and RESIDENCE (superior) for a GENTLEMAN, in the immediate vicinity of the New Highgate Road Station. The Apartments consist of Bed-room, Dress-room, with use of Drawing room and Dining-room. Terms in family. References exchanged. For terms, address, A. FRANCIS, 25, Fleet-street, E.C.

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## TO BE SOLD, A BARGAIN, the Property of a Widow, a MICROSCOPE and POLARISCOPE, by SLUGG, of Manchester, with extra Kryptos, Objects, Slides, &c. all in perfect order, not having been used many times. Cost 15s.; lowest price 10s. 10s. To be seen at Mr. BURN'S, Post-office, Sutton, Surrey.

## T. McLEAN begs to call attention to his method of CLEANING and RESTORING OIL PAINTINGS—A branch of art which, with valuable Pictures, is so dangerous to neglect.—T. McLEAN, 7, Haymarket.

## ROYAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY OF ENGLAND.—The COUNCIL having resolved that, on the 1st of January, 1869, the offices of SECRETARY and TREASURER shall be continued, Gentlemen desirous of becoming candidates are requested to send in their applications and testimonials, not later than the 20th of October next, to the Secretary of the Society, from whom all particulars can be obtained. Salary, £100 annum, with a residence, estate and gas. 15, Hanover-square, London, W. July, 1868.







## UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN.

Session 1868-69.

Chancellor—DUKE OF RICHMOND, K.G.

Lord Rector—MOUNTSTUART E. GRANT DUFF, Esq. M.P.

Vice-Chancellor and Principal—P. C. CAMPBELL, D.D.

## I.—FACULTY OF ARTS.

The SESSION commences on TUESDAY, the 9th of October, and closes on FRIDAY, the 2nd of April.  
The LECTURES begin on TUESDAY, the 9th of November.

CLASSES.	PROFESSORS.	HOURS.	CLASS FEES.
JUNIOR GREEK	WILLIAM D. GEIDDES, M.A., and Assistant.	9 to 10 A.M. and 11 A.M. to 12 P.M.	£2 3 0
SENIOR GREEK	WILLIAM D. GEIDDES, M.A., and Assistant.	10 to 11 A.M. and 12 P.M. to 1 P.M.	2 2 0
JUNIOR LATIN		10 to 11 A.M. and 12 P.M. to 1 P.M.	3 3 0
SENIOR LATIN		11 A.M. to 12 P.M.	2 2 0
ENGLISH LANGUAGE and COMPOSITION	ALEXANDER BAIN, M.A.	12 to 2 P.M. on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday	1 1 0
LOGIC	ALEXANDER BAIN, M.A.	11 A.M. to 12 P.M. on Tuesday and Thursday 12 to 1 P.M. daily	3 3 0
JUNIOR MATHEMATICS	FREDERICK FULLER, M.A., and Assistant	9 to 10 A.M. and 12 P.M. to 1 P.M.	3 3 0
SENIOR MATHEMATICS	FREDERICK FULLER, M.A., and Assistant	9 to 10 A.M. daily 11 A.M. to 12 P.M. on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday	3 3 0
MORAL PHILOSOPHY	WILLIAM MARTIN, M.A.	9 to 10 A.M. daily; 11 A.M. to 12 P.M. on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday	3 3 0
JUNIOR NATURAL PHILOSOPHY	DAVID THOMSON, M.A., and Assistant	10 to 11 A.M. and 12 P.M. to 1 P.M.	3 3 0
SENIOR NATURAL PHILOSOPHY	DAVID THOMSON, M.A., and Assistant	10 to 11 A.M.	1 1 0
NATURAL HISTORY	JAMES NICOL, F.R.S.E.	2 to 3 P.M.	3 3 0

The Fee for Students taking a Senior Class in any subject, without previous attendance on the Junior Class in the same subject, is £3 3s. Matriculation Fee, 1l. For the Degree of M.A., 1l. 1s. for each of three examinations.

The Course of Study for the Degree of M.A. embraces two years' attendance on Greek, Latin and Mathematics, and one on English Literature, Natural Philosophy, Logic, Moral Philosophy, and Natural History. Any student who, at the time of his entrance to the University, shall, on examination, be found qualified to attend the Higher Classes of Latin, Greek and Mathematics, or any of them, shall be admitted to such Higher Class or Classes without having attended the first or Junior Class or Classes.

## BURSARIES.

The Annual Bursary Competition will begin on TUESDAY, 29th of October, at Nine A.M., on which occasion there will be offered Forty-two Bursaries, of which 32 are in the patronage of the University, and 9 in that of the Magistrates and Town Council of Aberdeen. All but 6 are open without restriction. They are tenable during the four years of the Curriculum, and are of the following annual value:—Two of 35l.; Four of 30l.; Two of 18l.; One of 16l.; Twelve of 14l.; Three of 13l.; One of 11l.; Seven of 10l.; One of 8l.; One of 7l.; Two of 6l.; and Two of 5l.

Candidates are requested to bring with them Certificates of age, signed by the Ministers and Session-Clerks of their respective Parishes, to be produced, if required, when the result of the Examinations is intimated.

In addition to the usual Macpherson Bursary of 30l., there will be offered for competition, on the same condition, One of 9l. or thereby. Candidates for these Bursaries are requested to lodge with the Secretary, on or before the 25th of October, Certificates from a Gaelic Minister as to their knowledge of the Gaelic Language.

Of the Bursaries under private Patronage, Thirty-two were vacant at the close of last Session, viz.:—Two of 34l.; Six of 25l. 10s.; One of 21l.; Seven of 20l.; One of 18l. 10s.; One of 18l. 10s.; One of 16l.; One of 15l.; One of 12l.; Two of 14l.; Seven of 11l.; Two of 10l.; and One of 5l.

## II.—FACULTY OF MEDICINE.

WINTER SESSION, commencing on Wednesday, 25th of October.

CLASSES.	PROFESSORS.	HOURS.	CLASS FEES.
ANATOMY	Professor STRUTHERS, M.D.	11 A.M.	£3 3 0
PRACTICAL ANATOMY and DEMONSTRATIONS	Professor STRUTHERS and the Demonstrator.	(9 to 4 and 3 P.M.)	2 2 0
CHEMISTRY	Professor BRAIER	3 P.M.	3 3 0
INSTITUTES OF MEDICINE	Professor OGILVIE, M.D.	3 P.M.	3 3 0
SURGERY	Professor PIRIE, M.D. F.R.S.E.	10 A.M.	3 3 0
PRACTICE OF MEDICINE	Professor MACGIBBIN, M.D.	3 P.M.	3 3 0
MIDWIFERY AND DISEASES OF WOMEN and CHILDREN	Professor DYCE, M.D. F.R.S.E.	4 P.M.	3 3 0
ZOOLOGY, WITH COMPARATIVE ANATOMY	Professor NICOL, F.R.S.E. F.G.S.	2 P.M.	3 3 0
MEDICAL LOGIC and MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE	Professor OOSTON, M.D.	9 A.M.	3 3 0

SUMMER SESSION, commencing on the first Monday of May.

Botany—Professor Dickie, M.D. 9 A.M. 3l. 3s.  
Materia Medica—(100 Lectures) Professor Harvey, M.D. 3 and 4 P.M. 3l. 3s.

Zoology and Comparative Anatomy—Professor Nicol. 11 A.M. 2l. 3s.  
Practical Anatomy and Demonstrations—Professor Struthers and the Demonstrator. 9 to 4, and 3 P.M. 2l. 3s.

Practical Chemistry—Professor Braier. 8 and 10 A.M. 3l. 3s.  
Matriculation Fee (including all dues) for the Winter and Summer Sessions, 1l. For the Summer Session alone, 10s.

## III.—FACULTY OF DIVINITY.

The SESSION will commence on MONDAY, 14th December, and close on FRIDAY, 26th March.

CLASSES.	PROFESSORS.	HOURS.	CLASS FEES.
SYSTEMATIC THEOLOGY	SAMUEL TRAIL, LL.D. D.D.	11 A.M.	£1 11 6
ORIENTAL LANGUAGES	ANDREW SCOTT, M.A. Junior Class.	9 A.M.	1 11 6
CHURCH HISTORY	WM. R. PIRIE, D.D. Senior Class.	10 A.M.	1 11 6
BIBLICAL CRITICISM	WM. MELLISAN, D.D.	1 P.M.	1 11 6
		12 Noon.	1 11 6

MATRICULATION FEE ..... £1 0 0

## BURSARIES.

There will be offered for competition in this Faculty, on SATURDAY, the 19th December, 1868, the following Bursaries:—

ONE FRASER BURSARY of 30l., and ONE WATT BURSARY of 10l., each tenable for Three Years, and open to Masters of Arts of any University of Scotland, entering on the First or Second Session of the Study of Divinity; also FOUR BRUCE

## IV.—FACULTY OF LAW.

WINTER SESSION.—The SESSION will commence on MONDAY, the 2nd of November, and close at the end of March.

CLASS.	PROFESSORS.	HOUE.	FEES.
SCOTS LAW	(PATRICK DAVIDSON, LL.D. GEORGE GRUB, LL.D., Substitute.)	3 P.M. daily.	£2 3 0

MATRICULATION FEE, for Winter and Summer Session ..... £1 0 0

SUMMER SESSION.—LECTURES will be given on CONVEYANCING, of which due intimation will be given.

September 8th, 1868.

DAVID THOMSON, Secretary.

N.B.—Further particulars are to be found in the 'University Calendar,' published by WYLLIE & SON, Aberdeen. Price 1s. 6d., or 1s. 5d. by post.

**TO GENTLEMEN SEEKING OCCUPATION.**—An opportunity offers for profitably employing time and a small capital; suitable to a Man of Family desirous of entering Parliament, or to an M.A. or Barrister.—Apply, by letter only, to F. S. A., 11, Seric-street, Lincoln's Inn, W.C.

## PHOTOGRAPHS

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Publishing Department on the First Floor.

## THE UNITED LIBRARIES, 307, Regent-

street, W.—Subscriptions from One Guinea to any amount, according to the supply required. All the best New Books, English, French, and German, immediately on publication. Prospectuses, with List of New Publications, gratis and post free.—A Clearance Catalogue of Surplus Books offered for Sale at greatly reduced prices may also be had free, on application.—Booth's, Chubb's, Hogson's, and Saunders' & Orla's United Libraries, 307, Regent-street, near the Polytechnic.

## ADAMS &amp; FRANCIS insert ADVERTISE-

MENTS in all the London, Country, Colonial and Foreign Newspapers and Periodicals.

\* Terms, for transacting business, and List of London Papers, to be had on application to—

ADAMS &amp; FRANCIS, 59, Fleet-street, E.C.

## Sales by Auction

Bulls from Holland.

## MR. J. C. STEVENS will SELL by AU-

CTION, at his Great Rooms, 38, King-street, Covent-garden, on WEDNESDAY, September 18, at half-past 12 precisely, an Importation of BULLS from HOLLAND, in Lots to suit the Trade and Private Buyers.

On view the morning of Sale, and Catalogues had.

## Photographic and Miscellaneous Articles.

## MR. J. C. STEVENS will SELL by AU-

CTION, at his Great Rooms, 38, King-street, Covent-garden, on FRIDAY, September 19, at half-past 12 precisely, a few CAMERAS and LENSES by Ross and others, Rolling Press, Printing Frames, Passepartouts and Frames of all sizes, Photographic Albums, Stereoscopic Slides, Opera and Race Glasses, small Telescopes, &c. Also, several lots of Minerals and Fossils and other specimens of Natural History.

On view the day before and morning of Sale, and Catalogues had.

## Antiquities.

## MR. J. C. STEVENS has received instructions

to SELL by AUCTION, in the MONTH of OCTOBER NEXT (if not previously disposed of by Private Contract), a Valuable and Unique COLLECTION of ANTIQUITIES, found in Graves in the Island of Rugen, Pomerania; comprising Objects in Stone, Bronze, and other Metals.

The Collection can be seen at the Auction Rooms, 38, King-street, Covent-garden, and a Catalogue had.

*Extensive and Valuable Library of Works in Early English and Scottish History, Poetry and Antiquities, Miscellaneous Literature, Cabinet Coins, &c. (which belonged to the late ALEXANDER STRATHEN, Esq., Sheriff Substitute of Lanarkshire).*

## DUNCAN KEITH has been instructed to

SELL by PUBLIC AUCTION, within his Saloon, 61, Renfield-street, on TUESDAY, September 22, at half-past 12 precisely, the GENERAL LIBRARY which belonged to the above well-known Collector.

Catalogues, price 1s., may be obtained on application.

61, Renfield-street, Glasgow, August 14, 1868.

## HOUSEHOLD MUSIC.

## HOUSEHOLD MUSIC. A New Series of

Illustrated Music Books, printed from new type on the finest toned paper. Price Sixpence each; post free, 7d. each. Eight Numbers are now ready.

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A work of 850 pages, though not of the largest octavo, is bulky; and this book is big of its size. There is an immense quantity of matter, closely packed: and the author has a defined purpose of condensation. All that is about the mind, on the author's own view, is abridgment of two previous volumes. Running the eye along the table of contents, we catch nerves, muscles, sensation, appetites, instincts, intellect, retentiveness, agreement, compound association, abstraction, experience and intuition, perception, feeling, emotion, volition, desire, belief, moral habits, liberty and necessity, ethical standard, moral faculty, history of ethical systems, history of nominalism and realism, of experience and intuition, of classifications of the mind. These are only larger headings; with the smaller headings we have 36 pages, over and above the 850 just mentioned.

We welcome a summary of philosophical history, thus accompanied by the views of the summarist. It is often difficult to read accounts of opinion, especially short ones, because we do not know how to interpret the writer's terms. This is always best done, not by his definitions, but by the general run of his discussion: in like manner the portrait-painter gains the features of his subject from their play in conversation, as well as from the grave face he presents when in the chair. And the parallel is tolerably close: the writer often hedges and qualifies in his formal definitions, in a manner which does not influence his subsequent use of words: the sifter formalizes and fetters his lineaments, and looks grand, or intellectual, or sentimental, according to his nature and design, after a fashion very different from his unintentional physiognomy. To know B. by A.'s account of him, we must know A. What saith St. Augustine! says the poor priest in 'Ivanhoe.' What saith the devil! answers the impatient Baron; or rather, what dost thou say, Sir Priest! The Baron wanted to shut out the quotation and hear the news: we want the speaker's account of himself as well as of his Augustine, because we find the first essential to comprehension of the second. And thus we justify our preference, in so very slippery a subject as psychology, for a writer whose full explanation of himself precedes his explanation of others.

We do not, of course, enter into detailed review of the vast field over which Prof. Bain takes us. He belongs to a school of philosophers which desires, and to some extent pretends, to get at the mind through the body. There is a use of a word which many take to be American, but which is very old English. Milton, Hooker, and others of like authority, use it; but our earliest experience of it is in Dr. Meredith Hanmer's translation of Eusebius, &c. (1st ed. 1577; 4th, 1636). Speaking of the Nicene Creed, the historian Socrates is made to say that Eusebius "pondered with himself whether it were his part to admit that *platform* and definition of faith." Mr. Bain is on the *sensuous platform*: this school has its aspirants and its graduates. There are those who write books which assume to have arrived at mind through the brain: Mr. Bain, with much prefix on the muscles, nerves, &c. as well as the brain, does not make any decided declaration of successful junction. He writes on the feelings as well as the thoughts; and certainly physiology

is a much greater help to the treatment of the emotions than of the reason. We are put into bodily states by hope, terror, delight, &c.: the pulse shows it. But what part of our corporeal organism is affected by the difference, say, between a necessary and a contingent proposition? One man has lived in perpetual fear, another in constant tranquillity: their digestions tell their stories. Again, one man has lived a mathematical life of necessary inferences; another has cultivated history and its ever-recurring balance of probability: but no one could say which is which from their health or spirits. We cannot find fault with Mr. Bain, but quite the contrary, for his full treatment of the senses; but we think that he has been led by his system into a use of words in senses rather different from their usual philosophical senses; we mean, more different than he acknowledges.

In the very first paragraph of the book we learn that a tree or a river is an Object; a pleasure or a pain, we are told, "comes under the head of Subject." Does this mean that a pleasure is a *subject*? To philosophers in general, the perceiving mind is the *subject*, and pleasure is of and in the mind, *subjective*. Further on we learn that "Mind, as commonly happens (!), is put for the sum-total of subject-experiences." Philosophers in general admit the distinction of subject and object, as two somewhats with consequences. But Mr. Bain, admitting the object, shapes his words so as to bear the meaning that he has only subject-experiences without a subject. Hereby hangs a tale.

Our readers know that we have, in various matters, attempted to ferret out the concealed tendencies, if any, of theological and philosophical writers, on matters the disclosure of which might involve obloquy. We are sorry that stupid bigotry should prevent thinkers from giving us their whole counsel, and for this reason: we think the providence of God, the supernatural of revelation, the undying mind, the practical assurance of a future state, are doctrines which suffer very much from the obstacles put in the way of profession of atheism, infidelity, and materialism, as the opposites are usually called. We sympathize with both parties: with those who are obliged to conceal their denial of things usually admitted; and with those who, by reason of lurking doubts of their own, feel very angry when they hear of the doubts of others. But we object, as to two mischiefs of which we do not know which is greater, both to the assault upon the free-thinker, and to the freethinker's concealment of part of his system. Both are to be blamed as well as pitied.

To the second we say, keep the old word in its old meaning; let your "*platform*" be an intelligible "definition of faith," if you have one. To the first we recommend that they forbear to use *their platform* as a military implement, a thing to mount guns upon.

Now the *sensuous* system lies under suspicion of tending towards an attempt to deduce thought from matter, or, as has been said, to make it a secretion of the brain. It by no means follows that this theory, if established, would at all interfere with moral government or a moral Governor: some would throw away all Deity, which can be done under any system, and some would not. No one doubts that Priestley was an earnest Christian, in his own heretical way: but he was an avowed materialist, holding death of the body to be extinction, but not the less looking for the resurrection. Now mark the consequence of bigotry. Those who adopt the *sensuous* view are pre-

cluded from entering upon the ultimate question, think which way they may. They will not truckle to intolerance; they will not provoke it; they will not put on the appearance of desiring to stand well with it, even if their opinions would allow them to do so. They would rather have the scorn of the bigot than his approbation; and to secure that scorn, some conceal what they would otherwise avow. We hold this to be wrong, and we shall endeavour, by making ambiguities manifest, to put what difficulty we can in the way of both kinds of concealment.

There are, no doubt, those who write that they may undermine what they do not like openly to attack. These writers know that nearly all who are furtively led on a first step are led to make a second more easily than those who are allowed to know what they are about. We cannot distinguish them from those whose reasons are personal; for all work the same way. But then all are to be opposed on the same grounds, on account of this very want of distinction.

Those who conceal the attack as the most effective mode of assault may be well likened to the sow who asked for shelter until her little pigs were grown, and then, by help of her offspring, turned out the owner and kept possession. There is great objection on the part of such writers to their little pigs being prominently brought forward. We, they imply, say nothing about what they will grow to: why should you be looking forward? On this point we are of one mind with the American damsels, in the following story. There was a town in the United States where the young gentlemen went to church to get into the way of the young ladies. Tiring of this, they preferred to chat at the church-door, until their beauties came out with the rest. This the ladies would not stand; so, after the fashion of their country, they got up a society, the Anti-young-men-waiting-at-the-church-door-with-ulterior-objects Association; and of course they carried their point. They cared nothing for their affairs not being very forward: they knew that little pigs of flirtation would probably become large porkers of proposal; and they took a decided course.

Now we desire that Mr. Bain should tell us in his next edition what he means by an object-world of matter, opposed to a collection of subject-experiences. He tells us that "as object-experience is in a sense mental, the only account of mind strictly admissible in scientific psychology consists in specifying three properties or functions,—Feeling, Will or Volition, and Thought or Intellect—through which all our experience, as well Objective as Subjective, is built up. This positive enumeration is what must stand for a definition." We have no objection to specifying both mind and matter by properties and attributes; we can do nothing else; why then theorize before definition into objects as real somethings, and mind as but a sum-total of experiences? It is almost necessary inference from Mr. Bain's words that the brain is an existence, and that mind is only a manifestation of the properties of *something* which is not *mind*, because mind is but "put for the sum-total of experiences." This something which cannot be mind, what is it? The brain? We do not object to Mr. Bain holding this; but it is only fair we should know. Thought as a brain-secretion is a very natural consequence of various parts of Mr. Bain's system; it is very generally suspected to be the esoteric part of the *sensuous* system; and it is therefore desirable that clear explanation should be given on the point. That is, if any phrases be used which raise the question; and Mr. Bain has used such

phrases. When he tells us that mind is "put for the sum-total of subject-experiences," and that "the brain is the principal, though not the sole, organ of the mind," he seems to tell us that the brain is the principal organ of our thoughts, and that the mind means the collection of things of which it is the organ.

Mr. Bain's notion of existence seems to be swayed by the above theory. We might write a long article on his p. 180, § 7; but we will take only the heading, "There is a strong tendency in the mind to ascribe separate existence to abstractions; the motive resides in the feelings, and is favoured by the operation of language." Abstractions cannot be *abstractions* without a separate *something*: that something is *existence* to all who have not depraved the word. Most philosophers will give roundness, for example, an existence (subjective) in the mind. The old logicians made their subject treat only of the *esse quod habent in animâ* of notions. And how can the operation of language favour existence of abstractions, otherwise than as a son may help the father who gave *him* existence?

This *existence* is a terrible word! Philosophers ought, we think, to see that the conflict of realism and idealism is very much one of words. When Berkeley destroyed matter, it was merely as a mediator: he substituted the direct action of the Creator upon our minds. Now, as we know absolutely *nothing* about the material substratum except that it gives us the properties we perceive, we know not, and never shall know, whether there be nothing between these properties and the First Cause, or one thing, or fifty things. The realist and the idealist will be at one as soon as they know that knowledge stops and theory begins, the moment matter—or what-not—is stripped of all its qualities. The external object is a reality to all parties, and all they have to do is, to agree that when all they know about it is removed, nothing which they know is left. Yes! they say, but what about what we cannot know? For ourselves, we end with

There is a tree, and we can see it.—  
You don't know what it is.—So be it.

Mr. Bain is a writer of much thought and reading, combined with industry and enthusiasm. He can also be brief and perspicuous, considering his subject. He will, therefore, we hope, make his future editions as clear about the distinctive points of his own philosophy as about those of others. Let us have this sensuous system in plain language; let us know what is meant by mind being nothing but a word put for the sum-total of subject-experiences. A sum-total of battles and sieges could never be accepted as a definition of an army: we ask, what is it that fights and intrenches? What is it that reasons and thinks? Mr. Bain may well answer that he does not know; we do not believe he does. But the question is, whether he thinks that he *does* know; and that it is the brain. This is the point to be made clear, no matter which way.

Psychology in some points much resembles algebra. There are two chief unknown quantities, mind and matter. Neither was ever found; but many *functions* of them—we mean the mathematical sense of the word—are known, and being known, can be as safely used as if their subjects had been known. The living brain is a function of mind and matter; and we have no objection to the mathematical inversion, that the mind is a function of the *living* brain and its matter. But we cannot consent to drop the adjective. What makes the brain live? What we call mind, of which we know nothing but manifestations. The same of matter; but few, therefore, deny the existence of this ob-

jective somewhat. If there be any philosopher who will not admit what he knows nothing of, let him get rid of mind and matter both. *Punch* has written this philosopher's whole system of psychology:—What is mind? No matter. What is matter? Never mind.

Since we wrote what precedes, we have seen the report of Prof. Tyndall's remarks at the British Association. The attempts at brain-explanations of mind attract the attention of physical philosophers. This class of inquirers will not readily become unconscious of the great gulf which separates a molecular phenomenon from a *thought*. Prof. Tyndall remarks that if we could prove that love was always a spiral motion of particles from right to left, and hatred the same from left to right, we should not be a bit nearer to an explanation. He is quite right: though undoubtedly such a fact would be worth knowing. Find it out, then, if it can be found out; but in the mean time let not an assumed theory be made a means of creating confusion between the two things of the universe which are most distinctly separated.

*Happy Thoughts.* By F. C. Burnand. (Bradbury, Evans & Co.)

Of the many 'Happy Thoughts' which have occurred either to Mr. Burnand or his hero, the thought of having such thoughts is the happiest. It argues poverty of invention to say no more than this, but this is all that is to be said. As we followed the successive chapters through the pages of *Punch*, we laughed and we admired. As we read the whole book now, we laugh and we admire. Mr. Burnand is so fertile in extravagant comedy, that we have no other resource; but, at least, our laughter is genuine. We do not feel ashamed of having been amused. There is no painful feeling of humiliation afterwards, like the "next morning" which follows a revel. We may say of Mr. Burnand's fun, that there is not a headache in a hog'shead of it. Utterly ludicrous as his characters are, they are neither monstrosities nor abortions. They are exaggerations of what is perfectly real, living "humours," combined too copiously, but not invented. They have too many sides, and each side is brought out in turn with too much completeness. But in every case the skeleton is familiar to us. When Mr. Burnand begins to sketch in the first outlines, we recognize them at once, and perhaps we wonder at the absence of all novelty. But then he overlays them with such a vivid wealth of caricature that we forget our first impression, and give ourselves up to the most uncritical enjoyment.

It may amuse our readers to have some examples of Mr. Burnand's process. We can hardly suppose that *Punch* is unknown to any whom we address, or that its greatest hit of late years escaped public notice. But some people may like to be reminded that they were amused, and may like to know why it was that they laughed so heartily. We shall attempt to show them, if it can be done without any formal criticism of 'Happy Thoughts.' If we look at the hero's most absurd adventures, we see that in each he surrenders himself wholly to the comic influence of the moment. He does this without the least regard to the relative significance of all his adventures. Thus at the time when he is studying repartees, calling the porter at the station a fool, and writing out imaginary conversations with all sorts and conditions of men, he cannot afford to think of any of his other eccentricities. When he takes his famous railway journey with Boodels of Boodels, he is engrossed in the thought of the exact time and of his multitude of packages. He travels both

before and after this; but instead of having much luggage with him, he leaves his evening clothes behind. It is true that Typical Developments are kept constantly in sight after the idea has once been started, that the repartees come back in several chapters, and that from first to last the hero of the book is nervous. But there is much more in him than mere nervousness; he is not only a philosopher, or one who lacks readiness in replies. Before he hit upon the thought of his great work, he was content to write down curious discoveries in natural history. At this time, we think, he was not nervous. He was a mortal coward. The way in which he noted down that three hornets will kill a horse, that a blow from a swan's wing will break a man's leg, that bats are nasty things to tackle (N.B. Never tackle a bat), that a few rats will kill a man, and that geese will bite your shins dreadfully if they get hold of you, might prepare us for his wanton slaughter of earwigs and for his comments on the effect of hitting a bull-dog over the "front legs." His painful practice of repartees, with the happy thought that "the wits of whom we hear so much were not such very sharp fellows after all," brings out a new phase in his character. So, too, when he is overpowered by his feelings, and speaks to Fridoline with a voice which sounds "as if I'd been eating a pound of nuts with the husks on, and was talking under a blanket," there is another, though a slighter, variation. We might quote many passages to bear out this view, but everybody will remember them. Bands playing 'The Lancers' while the philosopher vainly tries to collect his thoughts,—breakfast in the Feudal Castle with ladies whose names are unknown,—the night arrival at the Feudal Castle, and the shouts from guest and fly-man across the moat, which the raising of the drawbridge has rendered impassable,—Chesterton's sermon, which is to be published with a chorus of "my typical, typical, typical toodlecum ti,"—the interview with the s'lic'tor after a dinner at the club,—and the climax of happy thoughts with Fridoline in the conservatory,—occur to us as we turn over the leaves. But the result of turning over the leaves is, that we do not get on with our review. We cannot decide whether we ought to quote or not; we find ourselves again reading and laughing; and, after all, we resolve upon sending our readers to the book itself, that they may read and laugh with us.

*Grant as a Soldier and Statesman: being a Succinct History of his Military and Civil Career.* By Edward Howland. (Low & Co.)

THE title of this book is a curiosity; for it is difficult to unders and how Grant can be a succinct history of his own career. But the title of the work is not its most curious feature. A volume which professes to describe campaigns, battles, and sieges, some of them in considerable detail, but which has not one map or plan to enable the reader to follow the military operations, is so manifestly useless for the purpose it pretends to serve, that at the first glance one is astonished it could find a publisher. But further inspection reveals that the apparent object of the book is not the real one. Its real object is to improve General Grant's chances of obtaining the Presidency of the United States by crying him up to the skies; and it is nothing but an electioneering puff on a large and expensive scale.

And yet Grant is the very last man to whom the wholesale flattery lavished on his career, and the vulgar applause of the mob, would be acceptable. He has no sympathy with erenades and hand-shakings at levees; for, in Mr.



Howland's language, "the petty vanity which would be gratified by a display in the scene of its triumphs has no part in his composition." Not only as painted in this book, but as he exists, he is a modest, unassuming man. Indeed, he carries his objection to ceremony and speech-making to a point almost absurd. Soon after the success of Chattanooga, he obtained leave for a short time to visit his son, who was sick at St. Louis, and registered his name upon the hotel-book simply as U. S. Grant, Chattanooga. Immediately, however, he was invited, in the usual language, to a public dinner, and felt bound to accept the invitation.

"The reception was given in the Lindell Hotel, and the enthusiasm with which the leader of the western armies was greeted was heartfelt and sincere. During the evening, in answer to a toast—'Our Distinguished Guest, Major-General Grant'—the General rose amid a perfect storm of applause, and said, 'Gentlemen,—In response, it will be impossible for me to do more than to thank you.' During the evening an immense crowd gathered outside, and the General was greeted with a serenade. When he appeared upon the balcony, he was received with enthusiastic cheers, and called upon for a speech. Nothing else would seem to satisfy the multitude; so that, finally, in self-defence, he took off his hat, and, amid profound silence, said, 'Gentlemen,—I thank you for this honour. I cannot make a speech. It is something I have never done, and never intend to do, and I beg you will excuse me.' Loud cheers followed this brief address, at the conclusion of which the General replaced his hat, took a cigar from his pocket, lit it, and stood on the balcony in the presence of the crowd, puffing his Havana, and watching the rockets as they ascended and burst in the air. 'Speech! speech!' vociferated the multitude, and several gentlemen near him urged the General to say something to satisfy the people; but he declined. Judge Lord, of the Land Court, appeared very enthusiastic; and, placing his hand on General Grant's shoulder, said, 'Tell them you can fight for them, but can't talk to them,—do tell them that.'—'I must get some one else to say that for me,' replied the General; but the multitude continuing to cry out 'Speech! Speech!' he leaned over the railing, blew a wreath of smoke from his lips, and said, 'Gentlemen,—Making speeches is not my business. I never did it in my life, and never will. I thank you, however, for your attendance here'; and with that the General retired."

Brevity characterized Grant's despatches as well as his speeches. They are generally to the point, and free from that pompous fine language which too often destroys the honesty and the effect of despatches and addresses to troops. His reply to the General commanding at Fort Donelson is a fair specimen of his written despatches:—

"Yours of this date, proposing an armistice and appointment of Commissioners, is just received. No terms other than an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works."

This obtained for him the *sobriquet* of "Unconditional Surrender Grant," and he afterwards repeated his claim to the title at Vicksburg. His interview with Pemberton under the oak-tree affords an example of his brevity of speech in matters of business:—

"The interview took place in front of M'Pherson's line, on a spot which had not yet been trodden by either army, and under the branches of a gigantic oak. After shaking hands, and introducing the officers to each other, Pemberton opened the conference by saying, 'General Grant, I meet you in order to arrange terms for the capitulation. What terms do you demand?'—'Unconditional surrender,' replied Grant.—'Unconditional surrender?' said Pemberton. 'Never, so long as I have a man left me! I will fight rather.'—'Very well,' said Grant, coolly."

Grant is a great smoker. His cigar seems never to be out of his mouth, except when he

removes it to utter his short sentences. When he reviewed his troops at New Orleans, "he was in undress uniform, without sword, sash, or belt; coat unbuttoned, a low-crowned black felt hat, without any mark upon it of military rank; a pair of kid gloves, and a cigar in his mouth."

Such is the man whose talents as a General were mainly effectual in bringing to a close the War of Secession. Cool, calm, and firm to an extent which the study of his portrait, admirably engraved in this volume, suffices to disclose, he had the great and invaluable advantage of a military education as a young man, and experience of war in early life. After four years' study, he graduated at West Point in 1843, and served with distinction in the Mexican war of 1846-48, and against the Indians in Oregon in 1851. Three years later he resigned his commission, and tried his hand at business, with very indifferent success. He was by turns a farmer near St. Louis, a dealer in wool, an agent for collecting money, an auctioneer, a house-agent, and finally, in 1859, entered into partnership with his father in a new leather and saddlery business in Gallena, Illinois.

So determined is Mr. Howland to say nothing but good of his hero, that he devotes two pages to show that his failure in business is a mark of his superiority, and that "it is to his credit that he made no brilliant success in his attempts to dwarf himself." But it is painful to see throughout the work the straining of events to the Federal honour and the Confederate disgrace. If the Confederates attack with great force and energy, Grant "had foreseen that the impetuous surge of the enemy's attack promised, by its very might, that it would recede," according to which extraordinary theory, it is a disadvantage to attack fiercely; whereas, when Grant fights a battle in a most dangerous position, with a river in his rear, we are told that "there is a military logic in audacity which rises above the conclusions of the schools." When Beauregard audaciously tells his troops that they shall "water their horses the next day in the Tennessee or in hell," he is guilty of "exaggerated confidence." When Grant makes no preparation for a retreat over the river in his rear beyond having his gunboats ready, and replies to his critics, who say that the gunboats would only have carried 10,000 men out of 38,000, that there would not have been more than 10,000 men left to carry over, he is praised for his "persistence." When Grant writes a despatch, he "handles the pen as decisively as he does his sword"; when Beauregard takes up his pen, "his insolent ignorance is his only claim to its use."

This is not history. It may be fair to use such means for electioneering purposes, but it is important to show that a work so written is not to be relied upon. We have said that it is impossible to discuss the military operations treated, because they are unintelligible without maps and plans. Perhaps Mr. Howland feared the criticism which their presence might have made possible, for assuredly he does not treat military matters well. He is constantly praising Grant for his "combination of strategy and action," as if action were not an essential part of strategy. In vain we look through the volume for any valuable information as to the utilization of the appliances of modern science for strategical or tactical purposes, or for comments of use to the student of military history. We are told that—

"In this campaign (Vicksburg) Grant first displayed his original system of warfare in a conspicuous way. War in the western country was as different an affair from war in Europe as the con-

dition of the country and the character and life of the people differ from those in Europe. The country there is all known, and the generals can study the movements of their own and the opposing armies as easily as they can study out a problem in chess. Here, however, much of the country is a wilderness; and the first surveys of it were made by the armies in the field. Here, too, the country is not covered with a network of roads. The railroad runs through forests in order to connect villages, and is frequently the only means of communication for large tracts of country. Grant, in this campaign, showed his full appreciation of the strategical importance of the railroad. Here, too, he first put into practice the idea of living upon the country, and made the suggestion of Sherman's final campaign possible."

But we are unable, after careful perusal, to find any detail of facts to warrant these statements, or any information as to how Grant obtained his supplies, or how he made such remarkable use of railways.

So much for Mr. Howland's description of Grant as a man and as a soldier. We have no intention of entering into the field of American politics, and so we will not discuss Grant as a statesman; only we would point out one feature that strikes us with peculiar pleasure—his tolerance of adverse opinions. From the time when he entered Paducah as a brigadier of volunteers, in 1861, and issued a proclamation, in which he said, "I have nothing to do with opinions, and shall deal only with armed rebellion and its aiders and abettors," on through his generous treatment of Lee and the Confederate army at their final surrender, his conduct might have taught a lesson of tolerance, of which his biographer has been slow to avail himself. Neither can we leave the subject without a tribute of approval to Grant's conduct in the matter of the Secretaryship of War. His public acceptance of the office without a sign of objection, in obedience to the supreme authority, and his private remonstrance to the President against the removal of Stanton, show a clear knowledge of the true path of duty; while his short and courteous letter to Stanton shows equally the kindness of his heart.

#### NEW NOVELS.

*Mildred.* By Georgiana M. Craik. 3 vols. (Hurst & Blackett.)

Miss Craik evinces more power in the style and tone of this novel than in any of her previous works, but she lacks discretion. She does not use her power in the production of a pleasant book. 'Mildred' is clever—decidedly and perversely clever. The reader is carried along, protesting and struggling, but he is carried to the end. The interest of the story is teasing; the characters, with the exception of Mildred and Philip Treherne, are very tiresome; the sentiment of the tale is false and unwholesome; the moral is not discernible; the work is a great deal too long; the conclusion is as disagreeable and unsatisfactory as the ingenuity of a woman can make it. But with all this, the reader will go through every page, and feel a touch of fellow feeling with Mildred's faithful and passionate love for the entirely good-for-nothing vagabond who consumes her life. This work has given us a higher opinion of Miss Craik's powers as a novelist than we ever entertained before; but we entreat her to take a better subject next time, and to draw human nature as it is, and not to expend her faculties on drawing a "delicate monster" who never could or would have been such as she represents Philip Treherne. The characters are merely dramatic appearances endowed for the moment with human passions and interests by her

faculty of expressing her own feelings with force and eloquent epithets. There is no truth in the work, except as it expresses Miss Craik's own will in the emotions she is pleased to describe. Mildred Treherne is, at the beginning of the story, a young girl of nineteen, living in a dull country house, with a foolish, impractical sort of father, who cares for nothing but sitting still in his easy chair, poring over books, and imagining that he is reading. They go to France. On their road to Paris, they stop at Rouen; Mildred sprains her ankle; a young Englishman shows them courtesy; they become intimate; he goes to Rome with them, because Mr. Treherne is too helpless to go without him. Mildred and Philip fall in love; he proposes for her. Mr. Treherne cannot say no, and does not want to say yes. There is a mystery over young Philip Romney's life, especially over his ways and means of getting his living. He belongs to an old family: his elder brother is a baronet, but he himself is a discarded branch from the family tree, and has been disinherited for deeds that deserved the punishment. Of course, when the relatives at home, especially Mr. Treherne's brother-in-law, who has great influence over him, come to look into matters, everything connected with the young man is as objectionable as a respectable family could wish to find, and quite bad enough to make a father shudder at the idea of giving his daughter and her fortune to such a son-in-law.

Philip Treherne is a gambler by profession, and has lived by his wits for many years. He is represented as high-minded, proud, magnanimous, witty, sarcastic, brilliant, clever, fascinating, very much in love with Mildred, but too proud to do or to endure anything to deserve her. He declares that if he may marry her he will make her happy, and be good himself, but he loves his pride better than Mildred. They are separated; he goes away, and he goes from the bad to the worst, as he promised her he would do if he were thwarted. Mildred neither sees nor hears of him for years; she leads a dull, imprisoned kind of life with her father, but loving and yearning after Philip, with a passionate and intense longing, which almost wears the life out of her. This suppressed passion of love and endurance, under the quiet monotony of external life, is described with a truth and pathos which blind the reader to its want of all agreement with the laws of human nature. No one can keep up a passion at fever heat during eleven years of absence and silence. At length her father dies, and she is free, and has her fortune under her own control. She has learnt through her brother that Philip has sunk down into the very depths of degradation, that he is a low gambler, the companion of sharpers and swindlers, living in a disreputable street and spending his days and nights at a public house, as a professional billiard-player of the worst stamp. She clings to him all the same. One day she sees him in the street; she makes up her mind at once what to do. She writes to him and gives the letter to her brother to post, who goes to find Philip, intending to say or do something that shall induce him to leave Mildred; but in the scene between them, which is very clever, Philip asserts himself, and, in spite of all his acts and deeds and surroundings, he has by far the best of it. Mildred's constancy touches Philip; the interview between the sundered lovers, meeting after so many years, is good and touching. They are married, Mildred still believing she has the power to raise and save him. The marriage is very uncomfortable; they lead a wandering, unsettled life abroad; but Mildred is satisfied apparently. At length Philip succeeds to the family title

and estate by the sudden death of his brother; he and Mildred and their only child return to England, and Philip seems really to lead a new life. The reader begins to hope that Mildred will have some peace, but suddenly an unknown wife and child of the dead brother's come to light, and Philip is once more disinherited! He takes this stroke of fate exceedingly ill, and poor Mildred's outlook is more gloomy than ever, when Philip redeems his past life by an act of superhuman heroism; he rescues the son of his brother from drowning, but he himself receives a blow on his head which stuns him. He never recovers, but dies with the hand of Mildred in his.

*Woodland and Woodbee: a Tale of Manly Virtue.* By Samuel Tomkins. (Houlston & Wright.)

WHILEST Mr. Tomkins's novel possesses several qualities that will preserve it from classification with altogether common-place works of fiction, it has at least one characteristic that distinguishes it from every tale of manly virtue that has come under our notice in these latter years. The utterances of its characters are so rhythmical and nicely measured that, were it not for the prosaic arrangement of the type which submits them to the reader's notice, nine-tenths of them might be mistaken for laborious, though frequently unsuccessful, attempts at composition in blank verse. When Horatio, the virtuous student of an ancient English university, informs his no less exemplary friend that he is author of an unsuccessful book, written in behalf of the domestic moralities, he makes the communication in the following style:—"Edward, thy sanguine nature leads thy noble heart and unselfish thoughts astray—beyond the control of thy better reason. Once I was as sanguine, and in the heat of my youthful zeal wrote a book, to which I bent my whole soul. Made the book attractive—as I thought—and filled with reason and with beauty every page—and sanguine still, I gave it to the world. But like a pebble cast into the sea, it sunk beneath the waves unnoticed, and well-nigh quenched my hopes of disseminating a purer truth among the tribes of men. No, no, my friend—had we not better leave our fellows—seek a home in some fair desert—choose each a partner of some virtuous stock, and there, ere they are corrupted by the doctrines and example of the lewd, bring them up in the fear of God, and instil the beauty of truth into their minds?" Whether college-chums are in the habit of conversing in this rhythmical and "high-falutin'" fashion is a question on which there is no need for us to offer an opinion; but the reader whose ear may find music in such verbal combinations will be glad to know that Mr. Tomkins's memoir of the aspirations and fortunes of the virtuous Horatio abounds with language no less forcible and melodious. For the same reader's immediate comfort it may also be observed that, though Horatio's book fell like a pebble cast into the sea and failed to disseminate a purer truth among the tribes of men, the author's career was most beneficially influenced by its publication. On its way from the surface to the bottom of the metaphorical sea, a copy of the work was intercepted by Emmeline Belmont, who encountered the unbound and slightly disfigured leaves in the village shop that drove its modest trade within a few paces of Col. Belmont's emparked mansion. "She had been there," says Mr. Tomkins, "to purchase sugar candy and bulls' eyes, to give the young children of the cottagers, and amidst other waste paper, though of a quality unusually good, and a larger type than common, it lay waiting the manipulations of the butter knife. The title

page and preface (if preface there had ever been) were gone for ever; but Miss Belmont, herself unknown, felt a kind of sympathy—a fellow-feeling, for what must have cost thought, and perhaps created sanguine hopes in the mind of its author; and being, too, in a somewhat curious frame of mind, she bought it as waste-paper for fivepence per pound." Thus purchased and rescued from defiling fingers, the work revealed to Emmeline the possibilities of masculine nature, and caused her to resolve that she would never become the wife of any man whose morality fell short of the author's standard and requirements. Tenacious of her purpose, Emmeline, with a firmness that savoured of cruelty, rejected the overtures of her father's wealthy neighbour, Squire Bailey, whose suit for her hand was supported by the Colonel's entreaties and remonstrances. The story contains no more characteristic passage than the scene which exhibits Emmeline's determined though dutiful resistance to her father's wishes on this point. The decisive interview between Col. Belmont and his heiress opens thus:—

"Good morning, Em. I have sought you far and wide; why roam ye thus at such romantic hours?"—"I love to breathe the virgin air of morn, fresh from those western hills, untainted. I love to see the welcome sun arise, calm and majestic, free from oppressive heat, and feel his beams oblique and mild. At early morn, creation seems to awake refreshed by sleep and vigorous with new life. The pearly dewdrop slakes the burning thirst, caused by noontide heat of yesterday. The earth and heavens seem glad—a cheerful tune, as if in praise, from sinless throats, is heard; robin and thrush, and harsher blackbird sing. The eye with beauty fills at every gaze—the ear drinks music in with every pause; and every breath we draw but makes the pulse beat with new joy—and 'tis but the glow of robust health paints nature's roses on the cheeks of rustic early risers!"—"What!" said the Colonel, "your fancy still on strange romances soaring—more wrapt in visions than in sober thinking. That book, too with you—that book unfailing. Is it that which teaches you to oppose the common teachings of mankind? Oh give up such romances, Em, and take the world as you have found it."—"I cannot give up my own nature, Papa; nor do the violence to my inward conscience, that you would urge me to. But do not let us ever mention again the scenes of yesterday—all will then be well, and we shall live as we have hitherto, in peace and love."—"Oh, Emmeline! shall we not reason? Is it a father or a foolish book should guide a daughter?"—"In what, my father, save in this marriage question, have I refused your guidance? Have I not always yielded to your slightest wish? But marriage is the solemn bond that endeth only with the life—once done we can't undo it."—"I know it Em., full well, and would not force, but reason; but are not your great objections borrowed from that book? You ever were a strange child, but since that book has been your constant study, you are more strange than ever; what does it treat of?"—"It teaches me what nature ever teaches—that vice is vice, and virtue—virtue."

When Mr. Bailey, whose youthful immoralities are the cause of his rejection, learns that Emmeline declines to recall or modify her refusal, a deeply-affecting scene ensues between the baffled lover and his favourite stable-man. "But," urges the wretched squire to his sympathizing groom, "'tis herself alone I seek. Were she 'reft of every shadow of her father's fortune, a wanderer in the world, I still would wed her. But, John, I'm humbled, for until this one—won by my person (or more like by my wealth)—I've reigned triumphant in the female heart. Nor am I now a rake. All previous amours from my heart are banished, and thoughts of her alone possess me,"—and saying this, the proud man leaned upon his servant's arm, and wept. And John also wept." It is



needless to say that towards the close of the story Emmeline and Horatio fall in love with each other, and that her desire to be his wife is enhanced by the discovery that he was the author of the anonymous work which she bought in the buttermilk shop.

*The Child Wife.* By Capt. Mayne Reid. 3 vols. (Ward, Lock & Tyler.)

On taking up for perusal a story with the well-known name of Capt. Mayne Reid on the title-page, nothing would seem safer than to declare the materials of which it is composed. One would confidently anticipate that it would discourse of startling adventures in the Far West, of deeds of savage daring upon the wild prairie or in the primeval forest. Nothing would seem more improbable than that the gallant Captain should come out in the light of a social reformer, a strong political partisan, and an authority upon the niceties of fashionable life in England.

It is with some surprise, then, that we find this to be his apparent intention in the present work—a surprise which would be the greater were it not mingled with a certain suspicion that it is less to secure circulation upon this side of the Atlantic than upon that which has, we believe, the honour of claiming Capt. Mayne Reid as a citizen, that he has departed from his usual style. We have even a sort of idea that 'The Child Wife' has already, in some form or another, appeared in the United States; but in this we may be mistaken. Certain it is that whether this be the case or not, it is a novel not very likely to be popular here; and that however the desire of the poet "to see ourselves as others see us" may influence a large class of readers, there are not many in England who are likely to exhibit any great longing to see themselves as they are seen by Capt. Mayne Reid. There is, however, another possible surmise in regard to this singular production, which, with all due humility, we beg to offer. It is that the author, conscious of the errors of our Old World Civilization, and touched by the contemplation of them, has generously republished, for our edification, a work originally intended for the eyes of others. However this may be, his criticisms are certainly outspoken, and in a degree to which we are not usually accustomed in works of fiction. His glance is almost as comprehensive as it is minute; and from our foreign policy to our private vices he has a word—and a very hard word—for them all. Our society is thoroughly corrupt,—our public men debauched, morally and politically,—our people slavish and deluded,—and our press venal, vicious and feeble. Especially is he severe upon one particular organ of this latter; and we learn in connexion with it a fact which is certainly new to us, and which may even, we fancy, be new to it. It is, that upon a certain occasion the journal, which had advocated principles very much opposed to those entertained by Capt. Mayne Reid, was utterly demolished in reputation and turned into a laughing-stock by the literary attack of a young and "then almost unknown" writer. Who this brilliant luminary was who thus burst of a sudden upon the world of literature, and by one blow dashed from its proud position the leading organ of public opinion, we are left to infer, but the stroke of the powerful pen is not to be concealed! and we shall not surely be far astray if we fix upon the author of 'The Child Wife' the fame of so wondrous an achievement. Very bitter also is he upon the conduct and character of a distinguished nobleman who long held the office of Secretary for Foreign Affairs in this country. Capt. Mayne

Reid is a thorough-going Republican, and is fully entitled to enunciate and defend his views; but he will not further them by vilifying the motives of others, nor by raking up old scandals or devising new ones directed against the private characters of those from whom he differs.

Considered merely as a novel, apart from its political and social digressions, we may dismiss 'The Child Wife' in very few words. She who gives the name to the book, and is, therefore, we presume, intended for the heroine, has scarcely anything to do with the plot; all the interest of which, so far as any plot may be said to exist, centres in another lady. This other lady, who is the single character of any pith or marrow, is yet sufficiently simple to be gulled into the belief that an adventurer, whom she encounters travelling abroad, is an English lord in disguise, and to be confirmed in the belief by a dinner-party in St. John's Wood to which he invites her, and at which some friends of his wife—described by the author as a "pretty horse-breaker"—are present, disguised under high-sounding titles. This same wife, moreover, of equine proclivities, although a high-spirited lady it would seem, is yet content to travel about with her husband compassing bigamy, disguised as his servant-man. The hero, Capt. Maynard, though only an obscure American officer, is nominated to lead the Hungarian insurrectionary movement of 1851, and only arrives just too late to share the fate of Damjavitich, Nagy Sandor, Aulich, &c. Of a still more extraordinary incident is he the hero in Paris shortly after, where, having been taken prisoner for some venial fault, he is upon the point of being shot, when—but we must relate the incident in the author's own words:—

"Before it could be given" (the command to fire) "the outer door opened, admitting a man, whose presence caused a sudden suspension of the proceedings. Hurrying across the courtyard, he threw himself between the soldiers and their victim; at the same time drawing a flag from beneath his coat, and spreading it over the condemned man. Even the drunken Zouaves dared not fire through that flag. It was the Royal Standard of England! \* \* \* Almost at the same moment, another man stepped hastily across the courtyard, and flouted a second flag in the eyes of the disappointed executioners. It claimed equal respect, for it was the banner of the Stars and Stripes—the emblem of the only true Republic on earth!"

These two individuals who so opportunely arrived, provided with the necessary theatrical accessories for an effective tableau, were respectively Sir George Vernon, a great English diplomatist, and the Ambassador of the United States. But enough, we think, has been shown of the book to prove that Capt. Mayne Reid has made a mistake in offering it to the British public. We do not quarrel with him on account of his republican opinions, nor do we begrudge him his admiration of Kossoth. The former may or may not be just opinions, and with much that he says relating to the latter we agree. But the one thing that is clear to us throughout is, that he has totally mistaken the nature and extent of his powers, and that he has drifted into a very undesirable kind of writing. As long as Capt. Mayne Reid keeps to the prairies and the red men he is in his element, and we wish him all the success he can command; but when he transfers the tomahawk and scalping-knife to English society, and deals as ruthlessly with the private characters of men of worth as with the top-knots of his Indian chiefs, it is another thing.

*Ships and Sailors, Ancient and Modern: a Sketch of the Progress of Naval Art.* By C. C. Cotterill and E. D. Little. (Seeley, Jackson & Halliday.)

ANY interest that may attach to this book will be found in its subject, rather than in the way in which that is treated. Messrs. Cotterill and Little do not write pleasantly, or always correctly. It is difficult to describe the plan of their work, and still more difficult to trace any likeness between plan and execution. The progress of naval art is, no doubt, shown to some extent by comparing Cleopatra's galleys with the ironclads of the present day. Sketches of various naval battles and adventures, from the time when Athenians and Peloponnesians fought at Naupactus down to the day when the Kearsage sunk the Alabama off Cherbourg, cannot fail to be stirring and attractive. What with the battle of Actium and St. Paul's shipwreck, the Sea Kings and the Crusaders, the voyages of Columbus, Balboa and Magellan, buccaneers and galley-slaves, the battles of Lepanto and Trafalgar, steam-ships and ironclads, cigar-ships and torpedoes, we have no lack of materials. We must do Messrs. Cotterill and Little the justice to admit that their researches have been sufficiently profound and extensive. But they have never grasped their subject as a whole, or tried to keep it steadily before them. So long as we are contented with fragmentary selections from various writers, with immaterial facts from history, and with details which are often too copious for their relative importance, we find nothing to complain of. Many of the selected sketches are picturesque in the extreme. The account of the ships of the Icelanders, taken from one of Dr. Dasent's books,—the sketch of the voyage of the Miantonomah, quoted from the *Nautical Magazine*,—the description of an American river-boat, derived from the *Engineer*,—the details of life as a galley-slave, drawn from 'The Autobiography of a French Protestant condemned to the Gallies,'—contribute largely to the interest of the book. If a double quotation be not an impropriety, we would justify this verdict by transferring the second of these passages to our own columns:—

"It was an interesting yet a fearful sight to watch the motions of the ironclad as she plunged through the swiftly-moving masses of water. In a long rolling sea a ship has time to rise from a pitch over one sea, so that she may easily meet the following, and ride over it; but with a short chopping sea, such as we meet in the German Ocean, a vessel must be exceedingly lively to carry a dry deck. The Miantonomah encountered the worst seas she has ever seen, and she came out of them finely. Driving ahead, the huge mass of iron and wood, wonderfully buoyant for the weight carried, would rise slowly to the coming sea, which, crested with a white mass of foam, bore swiftly and with terrible force upon her, threatening to submerge and bury her for ever, and, lifting her wedge-like bow high in the air, showed the reddish line of her plating, and below the gleam of her copper, and so would ride over the sea, and then plunge down to meet the following wave. And here she experienced trouble. The space between the waves was so short, that with her immense length she could not rise quickly enough to pass over it, and so she went through it. It would sweep in, rolling and seething along, divide on her sharp bow, and roll in solid green water 12 feet thick up to her forward turret, and then break against that tower of iron in wild, frightful, and confused masses, the white spray flying 40 feet above the top of the turret, drenching the officers and men there, and not sparing any one on the hurricane-deck. Other seas, rolling in this frightful manner, would break and draw cold water to the very grating of the hurricane-deck, and descend in miniature Niagaras upon the head of the watch. The scene was exceedingly wild, and

not without elements of fear; but the ponderous bow would rise again from this mountain of water, and roll it off in gleaming and flashing cascades, that sweep from the water-out to abate the turret, looking like a small Triton. The following sea she would almost escape, but the next would go crashing and rushing over her. So it went on for hours, —all wild, fearful, and threatening, as seen from the turret, but below in the cabin and ward-room, out of sight of those frightful seas, a summer passage, with an almost imperceptible roll and a gentle pitch, without jerking or sudden motions. The quiet breathing of the passive engines as they forced ahead the ponderous hull was all the sound heard there. No howl of wind and no sound of seething waters entered in that quiet retreat, as the wonderful ship ploughed her course through the angry waters of the North Sea, under a wild, gloomy, chilling sky, and into a sharp, strong, northerly gale. A Brooklyn ferry-boat occasions more uneasiness at times by her motion than was experienced under the shot-proof decks of the Miantonomah. No better test of her surprising strength and solidity, combined with wonderful sea-going qualities, could be desired than that afforded by the rough usage she had experienced, out of which she came unscathed, in the North Sea and the Skagerrack. The weight of a solid wave 10 or 12 feet thick may be easily calculated. It is something immense, and one that no wooden vessel would care to receive on her decks. Of course the Augusta was always above water, and the test was not so severe upon her; but the result to her of a blow such as the Miantonomah constantly received I do not care to speculate upon, especially as I have some thousand miles to voyage in her yet. The English pilot of the ironclad made his first voyage in one of that class to this point, and it is not saying too much to assert that he was thoroughly frightened when he gazed upon those tremendous seas coming aboard as he stood upon the forward turret. He was exceedingly troubled lest the deck should give way and be crushed in under the superincumbent water; but gradually regained confidence and courage as he observed how little effect the waves had on the ship. There was no shock of collision, and no shivering and trembling, such as he had before experienced in like circumstances; but the ship pursued her own way, easily and comfortably, throwing off the furious green seas as a lion would toss a rain-drop from his shaggy coat. And when he went below and was shut out from the physical exhibition of the elements, his wonder grew, and he now pronounces the vessel the most admirable and wonderful ship that ever floated."

Messrs. Cotterill and Little have shown that their judgments are good, and that they can appreciate the merit of other writers. If we meet them again, we hope they will be more selfish, and will try to earn for themselves equal praise.

*Documents illustrative of Academical Life and Studies at Oxford.* Part I. *Libri Cancellarii et Procuratorum.* Part II. *Acta Curie Cancellarii et Memoranda ex Registris Nonnulla.* By the Rev. Henry Anstey. (Longmans & Co.)

WE are accustomed to speak of Oxford as one of the most ancient, venerable and most tenderly preserved institutions in the country. But the Oxford of to-day is of our time, and is no more the Oxford of the olden time than Lord Nelson is the hero who won and died at Trafalgar. Indeed, Mr. Anstey may be said to go even further than this. He says that, "in spite of the general opinion to the contrary, Oxford of the present day contains, both in outward appearance and in inward management, scarcely anything that is old, or which, while retaining its old name as an old place, has not lost its original meaning or its original appearance altogether." The sole remnant of the University fashion of former days is supposed to exist in the practice of taking the furniture of a room at a valuation from a previous tenant.

By editing and explaining the documents named in his title-page, Mr. Anstey has reproduced nearly three hundred years of ancient Oxford life in the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Where every page has something new and of interest, selection is embarrassing; but we may say that, while the interest may be special for Oxford men, the book recommends itself to all who have curiosity in, and sympathies with, the history of the past.

It need not seriously vex even a Merton man to be convinced, though against his will, that University College is of an earlier date than Merton. Antiquaries must also allow that there is no proof that Alfred the Great founded University Hall, or was ever connected with the University at all. Whatever students may have been in Oxford about the time of the Conquest, there was nothing there in the form and bearing the name of University before the reign of Henry the Third. Even then, the name did not refer to general studies, "but rather expressed the corporate estate of the chancellor, master and scholars, to whom the words '*universitas vestra*' applied, meaning '*The whole of you.*'"

Mr. Anstey is inclined to think that town and university alike sprung out of the foundation of St. Frideswyde's Priory, in connexion with which there was probably a school. The first "benefactions" on record arose from the annual payment of 52s. by the townsmen, not of their free will, but as part compensation for having hanged certain clerks. In the old and early feuds between town and gown, the latter appear to have contrived to turn them to the benefit of poor scholars, the lowering of rents, and an improvement in the supply and quality of provisions. Pious and charitable persons contributed largely to the support of the University; but the money often disappeared in a marvellous way, and a good deal of it stuck to the fingers of the reverend gentlemen entrusted with its keeping. It is to be observed that the "Oxford lad" who needed help in those days was not victimized by a rascal money-lender such as later times have produced. If the poor fellow needed money from a University chest, he pledged some object of a certain value, which took its place there, and which he recovered on returning the amount borrowed. There was no usury; the borrower was only asked to pray for the soul of the lender.

Among the many curious incidents connected with halls and schools, we find the number of the former put at about eighty, with about thirty students each. Of schools, there were thirty-two in one street, called "School Street"; but that did not represent the whole number. Perhaps the greatest benefactor to these scholars under difficulties was Humphrey Duke of Gloucester, of whose noble gift of several hundreds of books one only survives, or is supposed to survive, in the Bodleian Library. For a long period, however, the highly-valued volumes were jealously guarded; and the librarian was not only held in high honour, but he was exceedingly well paid, lest he should grow disgusted with his office, and neglect the well-being of his books.

Of those who studied at Oxford, some were too young, others too idle to care for these books. The students were (in the fifteenth century at least) of all ages. From ten or twelve (when beginning their education in Oxford) to years of full manhood and of indiscretion, when the more audacious committed every sort of offence of which young men of hot blood and weak principles could be guilty. The wiser lads were probably sons of yeomen, with a bookish turn, and a desire to push it to profit; and who, if of the younger sort, were conveyed

to Oxford by the "fetchers" of the University, and carried back to their homes when the period for return arrived. The setting down of these lads, in dresses of all sorts of colours, at the "Cardinal's Hat," in Oxford, must have been a gay scene. The young fellows who were attended by their own servants, and had not been confided like goods and chattels to the "fetchers," were undoubtedly the early swells of the University; and the host, hostess, and maids of the "Cardinal's Hat" distinguished them accordingly. Mr. Anstey puts down the travelling expenses, for bed, board and stabling, at 5d. per day at the very most; and he thinks that even half that sum would not be "so insignificant as may, at first sight, appear." Mr. Anstey follows one of the youngest new-comers on his way to a lay, a secular, or to a "religious" school. The Augustine friars were adepts in grammar teaching, and the lay and secular teachers hated them. We meet with one, a non-graduate master, named Martyn, who joined his boys in insulting a rival master, and who was condemned to keep the peace, cease to make faces at his rival, and to unite with the latter at a good dinner of goose, beer and wine unlimited—the goose as to size, the liquor as to quantity. Of such happy description was the justices' justice of those remote times! Matriculation consisted in taking an oath to keep the peace, and in the scholar's name, if he were the pupil of a non-graduate, being enrolled on the list of some Master of Arts. The non-graduate pupil dressed as he liked, save that he could do no academical dress till he obtained a degree. The young pupils of this condition stood in classes to listen to lectures, and instruction otherwise conveyed. There was no Greek then taught, but French was indispensable; and the grammar of that language, and indeed grammars generally, seems to have been well cared for. Verse-making was in repute; but, what was far better, the students were taught to be complete letter-writers,—a teaching that is now universally extinct.

When the student, progressing to a hall, introduced himself to the principal, he probably found the latter in a modest room, hung round with bows and arrows, lutes and guitars, an axe, a sword or dagger. There is a single chair, and benches for young men who attend lectures, with a very few books. The student's single room was furnished according to his means. He rose at seven, and at lectures by nine; he dined at noon, and was ordinarily at lectures from one to four or five o'clock. Attendance at divine worship seems to have been compulsory; but there was a plentiful lack of divine charity, for the students being divided into Nations, the northern and southern scholars were often in mortal quarrel, and Welsh and Irish hated each other with a diabolical ferocity, which had the freest indulgence. This was, no doubt, especially the case when the young Oxford gentlemen celebrated the festivals of the patron saints of their various churches, and went down into the streets masked, wreathed and garlanded, and ready for any contingency that might lend excitement to the day. At festivals to celebrate responsions, extravagance was carried to such a pitch that the Chancellor interfered, and limited them to the outlay of not exceeding sixteen pence.

What we now know by the name of "plucking" does not seem to have then existed; but the same calamity was encountered by another process. The great object of those who sought the degree of Master of Arts was to make money by delivering lectures, as none below that degree could do so lawfully. With regard to expenses, Mr. Anstey calculates that the



scholar's nine years of Oxford life cost his father 34*l.* 9*s.*, which multiplied by twenty, to get the present monetary value of that sum, would represent nearly 700*l.*, which cannot be called an extravagant outlay.

For other illustrations of Oxford life, more particularly in the fifteenth century, we must refer our readers to Mr. Anstey's volumes. That life, in all its variety, fun, earnestness, beauty, ugliness, grace, ferocity, and abounding usefulness, is fully illustrated in the text of these volumes and in Mr. Anstey's lucid Preface.

*The Emigrant's Vade-Mecum; or, Guide to the "Price Grant" in Venezuelan Guayana.* (Trübner & Co.)

This little volume attests one of the most curious facts of the present century. The inhabitants of Virginia and the Carolinas, whose ancestors migrated from England to America, are passing to a region in the South, where they will escape from the oppression of the Northern Yankees, and renew the glories of their once flourishing but now down-trodden country. To use the words of the book before us, "In this exodus to Venezuela history is but repeating herself. The great crowning inducement to the Southerner in emigration is that of being out of the United States, and in a country where it is no reason to differ in opinion, as it is now in his own country." It was on the 13th of September, 1865, that the Venezuelan Government granted to Dr. Henry M. Price, of Scottsville, Virginia, the right to colonize the waste lands of Venezuelan Guayana and the Amazonas, and thus supply a home to the "impoverished Southern people, who may wish to leave their native country for one more congenial to their views and feelings." The lands thus conceded are of the vast extent of 240,000 square miles, and, with a soil of unrivalled fertility which they possess, might easily support a population of fifty millions. The climate is even now far from unhealthy, and with the appliances of modern civilization the settlers may look for as much immunity from disease as can be expected in the healthiest parts of Europe. Already about 4,000 Americans from the southern provinces of the United States have located themselves on the banks of the Orinoco and its tributary the Caroni, at Puerto las Tablas, 200 miles from the mouth of the Great River, and on its northern shore; at New Caroni, on the opposite bank; at a colony on the Paragua river, which falls into the Caroni at Carrutel, on the latter stream; and at Borbon, Santa Cruz and Orinaca on the Orinoco, to the west of Angostura. Next year the colonists will send home their first cotton crop; for, as we read in this guide-book, the first business of the settlers is "to re-ignite the fires of their former ambition as the greatest staples of the marketable world." Meantime, every Southerner of the United States, every Englishman who can muster 25*l.*, may have in Guayana an estate of 160 acres, all land of a wonderful richness, at 3*s.* 1*d.* per acre, and this, too, without any charge or tax on imports or exports for from five to ten years, and with an immunity from military service. The result will no doubt be, that in twenty years from this time there will be 100,000 persons of the Anglo-Saxon race on the Orinoco, represented by several members in the Venezuelan Congress.

It is a happy coincidence that just at this moment lately-discovered gold-fields in Guayana have been proved to be richer than any in Australia or California. The out-turn from these fields, under the management of Anglo-Saxon skill and energy, will probably astonish

the world, and soon attract a population to Paragua and the confines of British Guayana. Thus multitudes besides Anthony Trollope will find in that quarter "the Elysium of the tropics, the one true Utopia of the Caribbean Sea, the transatlantic Eden."

The compilation of this volume does credit to Mrs. Pattison, and it is to be hoped that she will succeed in the objects she has at heart, the founding an extensive library for the new colony, and, what is even more important, the providing governesses and wives of the Anglo-Saxon race for the emigrants.

A few mistakes we have noted in the pages before us may be corrected in the next edition. Thus, at page 6, the list of provinces is taken from Colton's Survey, and is now out of date. A more correct list will be found in Mr. Eastwick's 'Venezuela,' just published. In the next page the Orinoco is said to be the second largest river in the world. This honour may very fairly be contested by the Yang-tze-Kiang. At page 12 it is said, "Food is in such profusion, that half of it remains ungathered." "Fruit," we suppose, should replace the word "food" in this sentence. At page 36, in the description of the boundaries of the Grant, "east" and "west" should be transposed. Other inaccuracies will probably be detected on a careful reading; and the volume, from its usefulness, is worthy of close revision.

#### OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

*Turf Frauds and Turf Practices; or, Spiders and Flies.* By M. R. Laing-Meason. (Routledge & Sons.)

SOME two years since, when houses were stopping payment in every quarter of "the City," and every division of the country had its special cases of recent commercial catastrophe, Mr. Laing-Meason put forth his 'Bubbles of Finance' and 'Profits of Panics'; and now that the scandals of the stock-market have for the moment been put out of sight by the rascalities of racing men, Mr. Laing-Meason uses his ready pen and considerable knowledge of bad human nature, to afford us diverting illustrations of the processes by which rich fools are despoiled by needy rogues on race-courses and at betting-clubs. That the author is a smart and amusing writer, no one will question; and, so far as our limited knowledge of his repulsive subject enables us to estimate the truth of his sketches, we are inclined to think him a voracious delineator of the dupes and scoundrels who greatly outnumber the fairly honest members of turfite society. 'Two Tips' and 'Bookmaking' were worthy of the serial in which they originally appeared; and the author has padded them up to the dimensions of a small railway-library volume with papers of the same style and equal merit. But though we recognize his literary sufficiency, we cannot declare our perfect satisfaction with the moral tone of a publication which is much more qualified to encourage than to restrain youthful gamblers in the road to ruin. By drawing a broad line between "respectable bookmakers" and "the regular welchers of the ring," he seems anxious to relieve of their appropriate obloquy a class of men who are far more injurious to the community than those utterly discredited sharpers who cannot get admittance to a race-course until they have disguised themselves so as to escape the observation of the police. 'A Rise in the World' and 'The Little Man in Grey' are so clearly calculated to work mischief amongst the weaker and more docile of such persons as are likely to read Mr. Laing-Meason's book, that we regard their publication as an occasion for regret and reprehension. If it be true that any Englishman has run the career of Sam Sutton, and, after raising himself from the condition of a poor apprentice to the position of capitalist by prudent and sedulous devotion to the business of betting on horse-races, enjoys the world's approval and his own respect, whilst he still persists in the betting-man's discreditable vocation, the story of his very

exceptional "rise in the world" is not one of those instances of self-help and self-aggrandizement that may with advantage, or without risk of harmful consequences, be held up to the wonder and emulation of shopmen and apprentices. So, also, if the career of "the little man in grey" be a fact, as the author is very particular in assuring us we may regard it, we can only say that it is one of those facts that had better be kept from the knowledge of the many youngsters who have already conceived a taste for turf-gambling, but are withheld from surrendering themselves totally to its ruinous fascination by a wholesome impression that the career of a professional gambler is incompatible with the possession of domestic happiness and social respect.

We have on our table *Life and Death as Taught in Scripture* (Stock),—*The Evangel of Jesus according to John: a Literal Rhythmic Version from the most ancient Texts*, by Charles D. Brereton (Bosworth),—*Report of the Case of the Queen v. Edward John Eyre on his Prosecution in the Court of Queen's Bench for High Crimes and Misdemeanours alleged to have been committed by him in his Office as Governor of Jamaica*, containing the Evidence (taken from the Depositions), the Indictment, and the Charge of Mr. Justice Blackburn, by W. F. Finlason (Chapman & Hall),—*Chats by the Sea*, by Marianne Farningham (Clarke), *Ethel Lea: a Story* by Anna King (Parker),—*Mrs. Brown at the Sea-Side*, by Arthur Ketchley (Routledge). New Editions of *Parochial and Plain Sermons*, by John Henry Newman, B.D. (Livingtons),—*On the Obscure Diseases of the Brain and Disorders of the Mind*, by Forbes Winslow, M.D. (Churchill),—*The Diamond on the Hearth; or, the Story of Sister Anne*, by Marian James (Hogg),—and *A New Guide to Spanish and English Conversation*; consisting of Modern Phrases, Idioms and Proverbs, to which are added Tables of Spanish Moneys, Weights and Measures, and a Copious Vocabulary, by J. Rowbotham (Nutt).

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#### OXFORD UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

THE issuing of the Oxford regulations with regard to unattached students has naturally led to some discussion. Mr. Kitchin, one of the delegates for licensing houses, extols the public-spirited liberality of the University in thus opening its doors to all classes, and anticipates great results. He hopes examining-chaplain will recommend young men to go to Oxford instead of entering the Church as *literate*, thinks subordinate masters in schools will be glad to get an Oxford degree, and does not despair of attracting the sons of "mill-hands." It may reasonably be doubted whether he is not too sanguine in his expectations. There are not many of the working-class who could pass the entrance examination; and the saving of expense will scarcely be sufficient to meet their circumstances. "The unattached student," says Mr. Kitchin, "must be prepared in most cases to pay

for tuition in some form beyond what he can get from professorial lectures, and the advice, &c. of his tutor." Elsewhere we are told, "the tutors are not bound to teach their man," which seems strange, especially considering that out of the 3*l.* 10*s.* charged yearly for tuition, 3*l.* is paid to the tutor. No doubt "the influence of an active-minded and experienced adviser" is of great value, but it will not in itself be sufficient, as Mr. Kitchen admits. We think it would be more satisfactory to furnish really adequate tuition on whatever terms might be necessary. If a young man is to pay 3*l.* 10*s.* a year for mere advice, and from 20*l.* to 30*l.* more for private tuition, to which must be added the cost of books—no small item in the case of a man reading for honours,—we do not see the force of Mr. Kitchen's remark, that "the unattached system invites all classes, and seeks to dig into strata hitherto entirely neglected." As every student is required to reside in a licensed house, and it may be presumed that all such houses must be tolerably good, and in situations suited for health and study, it will not be possible to save very much in rent; nor can economy in board and clothing be carried very far in such a place as Oxford. To reach the working class, it will be necessary to have a graduated series of scholarships, by which the poorest may be enabled to advance from the national school to a grammar school, and thence to the university.

But, though we are not inclined to expect any great influx of students in consequence of the reduction in expense, we can easily imagine that many—especially such as do not belong to the Church of England—may be glad to have what Mr. Kitchen rightly calls "the broad and healthy teaching of Oxford life," free from compulsory attendance at hall, lectures and chapel. Mr. Winterbotham was, no doubt, right, when he said, in his remarkable maiden speech, that dissenters fully appreciate the value of culture if it can be obtained without compromising their religious convictions; and it may safely be presumed that many will prefer residence at Oxford to simply passing the examinations of the University of London. All who are qualified from experience to form an opinion on the subject, are well aware that residence is one of the chief advantages of a university education. It ought to be known that, in point of religious freedom, Oxford is in advance of Cambridge. Oxford undergraduates, who are not members of the Church of England, are allowed to substitute for Divinity—under which head are comprised, "the four Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles in Greek, the history contained in the books of the Old and New Testaments, and the subjects of the books, the Thirty-nine Articles, and the evidences of religion"—an equivalent amount of other work, "which, however, is not to affect the award of honours"; whereas at Cambridge no one can pass the little-go, which is an indispensable preliminary to a degree, without taking in a Gospel of the Greek Testament, the history contained in the Old Testament, and Paley's Evidences.

#### ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

10, Grafton Street, Piccadilly, Sept. 7, 1868.

Mr. H. Brookes, in his communication to you of last week, has thought proper to mention that "neither myself, nor my colleague, was very well satisfied with" the explanation which is said to have been given by the Director and Secretary respecting the *Anthropological Review*, at the time of the last audit. As I happen to be the colleague referred to, I am reluctantly compelled to trouble you with a few lines, because Mr. Brookes is wrong in interesting me in the curiosity expressed by him on that occasion as to the editorship of the said *Review*.

While taking considerable pleasure in following the transactions of the Society from the date of my membership, I have seen nothing in the issue of publications, either by or through the Society, that called for any particular attention, except that there had been a very liberal supply of them to the members; and it never occurred to me to ascertain whether any great financial salvation would

accrue to the Society by the disclosure of the name of an editor, or a proprietor of any one of them.

If the Director, or Secretary, or both, said what has been imputed to them, I never heard it; or if Mr. Brookes will have it that it was said in my hearing, then, attaching no importance to it, or being possibly more usefully employed in the work of audit, I must have allowed the information to go "in at one ear, and out at the other," as it left no impression on my mind.

On the other questions involved in Mr. Brookes's letter, I cannot help feeling that the old members of the Council, who have worked so assiduously and successfully in bringing the Society up to the numerical strength it possessed before the impetuous, imprudent, and personal attack was made upon them by Mr. Hyde Clarke, were entitled to more consideration than Mr. Clarke or his supporters have shown to them.

Too much cannot be said in deprecation of charges of "charlatanism, puffery, and jobbery" (terms familiar to those who may have occasion to use them in their experience of Joint-Stock Companies), made against gentlemen who, without fee or reward, give their time and earnest labours to the emancipation and advancement of science.

Mr. Brookes's reference to "Dr. Hunt's clique" is surely without deliberation. Those who do not agree with him should not be called "names." That is folly. If Mr. Brookes is not one of "Dr. Hunt's clique" he is one of Mr. Hyde Clarke's clique; and when he asks "what other motive could he (Mr. Hyde Clarke),—a life member—have?" the other side might as well at once say "place."

All this is unworthy the matter at issue; and if it be found by the "Committee of Investigation" that the statements put forward by Mr. Hyde Clarke are incorrect, he will have the satisfaction of knowing that he has temporarily paralyzed an otherwise vigorous society for the sake of a little personal notoriety in your highly appreciated paper.

CHARLES HARDING.

Beddgelert, North Wales, Sept. 5, 1868.

I have the fortune or misfortune, the honour or the disgrace, whichever you may deem it, to be Treasurer to the Anthropological Society of London. I have been slow hitherto to believe, but after Mr. Brookes's letter in your last number I can no longer doubt, that it is considered possible or probable that I have jobbed, or, in other words, swindled, the members of the Society to the extent of about 300*l.* I speak in the first person singular because I am, of course, in such a case the officer primarily responsible; and I presume that you will not hesitate to print this answer, as holding that I have been personally accused in your pages.

Now it is the extraordinary simplicity of the matter which has hitherto prevented me attributing to it the importance which it appears to be assuming. We have practically but two creditors, viz., our landlord and our printer; and that it would be possible to find any mystery in our accounts, or that your own general readers would ever be interested in them, is what I could not bring myself to believe.

Mr. Brookes, your correspondent, audited our accounts last year; and till I read his letter I should certainly have supposed that he had thereby made himself personally responsible for their accuracy. I well remember seeing him engaged in the business, but I have no recollection of his ever having addressed to me any query about them. He admits, indeed, that the 300*l.* odd was duly paid, but he says he knew not, and was unable to discover, the party who received it. Now when a Society has but a half-dozen creditors, the checking of the ledger cannot be a work of any great difficulty; and I assume that the heading of the bills showed Mr. Brookes to whom the money was immediately transferred, viz., to the printer, and that he only means he is ignorant of the names of other parties, behind the printer, to whom the printer may or may not have handed it over.

Now, on this point, I am quite as ignorant as Mr. Brookes. The only difference between us appears to be that I have no curiosity upon the subject, and he has much. It is, however, on

account of this very ignorance that he accuses me of jobbing or swindling. This is what I cannot understand. For, if we be equally ignorant, are we not equal jobbers? The work for which I paid the money was for composing, pulling, printing, advertising, binding, &c. &c., say 800 copies, four times a year. This, at about 2*s.* per number, will make the sum in question. I say again that it is the very simplicity of this matter which makes it so incomprehensible to me how such a hubbub can have arisen. I can safely say that my reason for joining the Anthropological Society was to benefit myself mentally, and not pecuniarily, and that I am quite ignorant of Mr. Brookes's meaning in his remarks about the management of the Society by a clique; the fact being, that any ten members may summon a general meeting, without formality and at very short notice, to discuss any point of "management" they please.

DUNBAR ISIDORE HEATH,

Treasurer Anthropological Society of London.

#### MARKED LINEN.

Paris, Sept. 1, 1868.

A plausible essay might be written on the advantages of transacting private business in public. The present generation of French literary men could supply the backbone to such an article. The Chamber of Death is wide open, and notes are being taken on the ashes of the poet's wife. Grief gets upon a platform. We are prone to seek solitary places when the final change has come upon the companion of our life. Hardly can we bear the consolation of friends. It is not so with our good neighbours. As they appear in the bright hours of their life, so are they when the myrtle crosses their path. They are beguiled with descriptions of their great men's dinner-tables and bed-chambers. Dr. Veron's cook is better known in France than a Quarterly Reviewer is in England. Yesterday the nuptials of Chevet of the Palais Royal were announced, with speculative remarks on the probable succulence of the wedding feast; and in a parallel column the death of Madame Victor Hugo gives a writer an opportunity of setting forth the poet's courtship and painting the figure and beauty of the bride of 1823. We are freely admitted to the Hugo home. We learn that the poet first met his wife in the house of M. Deschamps, the father of the poets Émile and Antony. Love was made in a very "nest of singing birds." And the lovers were wed in their early youth. The happy husband sang the virtues of his lovely and accomplished and high-minded mate. "Marie Foucher" (Alphonse Duchesne in his easy way says) "was tall and majestic, and crowned with a forest of crisp black hair." She was "very beautiful, but of a somewhat strange beauty." He proceeds: "Her soul was open to pity, to every tender sentiment, to every feeling which does honour to humanity. No heart was ever higher placed than hers, and I could tell a story that would prove how she could combine the most exquisite kindness with a grander feeling. She had even her heroic day." This panegyric reaches the *Figaro* readers over the lady's open grave, and is followed by a long letter which she wrote about twelve years ago to Jules Janin. The letter is a charming "outcome"—to use a new rough word—of a tender and cultivated woman's nature, in which the exile's home is painted in delightful colours. The gentle sharer of the stern patriot's dark days sets herself unconsciously in the centre of the picture and gives it light and warmth. It is exquisitely wifely and motherly. Only the sensitive stranger trembles while he reads, having an idea, vague and alarming, that he is committing an unhandsome action.

We pass to the scene at the frontier railway station where Victor Hugo and his family took leave of the mortal part of an adored wife and mother. The agony of that moment is presented to us in the evening papers, to the lifting of the face-cloth! Even to the funeral. The *Figaro* publishes a telegram from its special correspondent, Victor Noir, declaring that he arrived too late, the last duties having been paid "very simply" at five o'clock on the previous evening at Villequier, near Havre. Our insular shrinking over all this publicity—this light turned full upon the house of mourning—is



the result of a narrow view. If France be not grateful to her known men, she takes the keenest interest in them, to the length of their shoe-strings, and the category of their funeral pomp, the personal appearance and temperament of their wives, and the colour of their children's hair.

The paper which prints a private letter from Madame Hugo to Jules Janin may explain to us a little of the private affairs of another individual known to fame, and, therefore, to the contents of his waistcoat-pocket, the property of the public.

The *Gaulois*, the admirable new journal that has the courage to be just to the Government as well as true to the Liberal cause, is to be strengthened by a romance from the intrepid pen of the younger Dumas. Now, when a British editor has secured a star to shoot through a given series of his periodical, he plainly announces the fact; hard, prosaic dealer that he is. The French editor is a spirit of a bolder and more dazzling flight. He begins with the publication of the business correspondence. M. de Pène, for instance, has just received this characteristic note from the author of the 'Demi-Monde':—

"My dear Monsieur de Pène,—On Saturday night or Sunday morning you will receive a story I have written with the greatest care, with your paper in view. Read it, and if your title will allow you to induct your readers into these physiological confidences, print it as you please, in a *feuilleton* or as *variétés*. To begin with, your *feuilleton* is occupied. I have indicated under my title, in two lines, the kind of readers I address. If you have young girls among your subscribers, print a separate edition for them, with an embroidery design in the place of my prose. However, if you find the story a trifle too warm send it back to me; it will not prevent me from sending you another some day of a soberer tone. Should you decide to risk it I will beg you to have the proofs most carefully corrected, since I cannot ask you to send them to me where I am. Believe me, dear Monsieur de Pène, in all my affectionate sentiments,  
A. Dumas fils."

The editor's reply:—

"My dear Monsieur Dumas,—With a writer like you, a thinker like you, an honourable man like you, honest folk may always travel without fear whithersoever you may choose to lead them. As for the young girls, we have probably two kinds among our subscribers, those who would show it to everybody, about whom we are not anxious; and for the others,—the section of lilies, cultivated in the shadows of maternal vigilance,—the mothers will undertake, in the interest of their tender plants, to exercise a domestic censorship, should it be required. We are quite out of embroidery designs. Ever yours,  
H. de Pène."

There are, however, eccentrics left in France who are not content to eat, drink and sleep for ever under the public eye, and are backward enough in their century to reserve a wee bit of privacy. Madame George Sand, who has invariably declined to be caricatured by a Gill, is now antiquated enough to resist the publication of her 300 letters relative to her separation from her husband, which she addressed in 1835 to Michel de Bourges. This refusal might have been expected from the unreasonable lady who forbade the publishing of her correspondence with Alfred de Musset, for the diversion of *coiffé* readers, a few years ago.

The thirst for knowledge of the private affairs of known men had become so acute of late years, you will remember, that it was necessary to pass the law which protects the man or woman who is not inclined to have his or her domesticity served up as a public dish. The elder Dumas has overdone life in a glass house, as I have had occasion to note more than once in the *Athenæum*. The papers are excessively supplied with accounts of the habits and earnings of prominent men. But let us observe that the interest which the French people take in great authors, artists and composers proceeds from a very honourable instinct. Their respect for intellect is at the bottom of their curiosity. At this moment Dr. Nélaton having been created a senator, everybody is eager to hear all that can be collected about the medical student who has reached the head of his

profession, and is now specially honoured by his sovereign. The literary reporters have found "plenty of meat" on the doctor; but they have given him credit for a little more than he is inclined to acknowledge. It has been printed that he began life with a fortune, and, to put it paradoxically, that he "walked" the hospitals in a carriage and pair. The doctor has answered his detractors sharply. It is not only with his hand he can use the lancet. He was poor. "To my thirtieth year," he answers, "I knew beef only in the condition of *bouilli*."

I have said that Dr. Véron's Sophie is better known in France than a Quarterly Reviewer is in England. The trusty *cordons bleus* stands in reflected glory. In this popular pursuit of knowledge about men of mark we see another indication of that general liberal education which distinguishes the French public above that of England. Imagine an English porter's wife reading aloud to her circle on Sunday afternoon an account of the funeral of Wordsworth's wife or mother! The audience would be puzzled to understand who Wordsworth was, to begin with; or, if they understood, they would be astonished that the editor should lard their weekly pennyworth of news with notes about a poet and his wife, and give barely two columns to the child that was baked in a pie last week. The difference was put the other day, I thought neatly, by a person I know very intimately indeed: "In France, all the men and women who can read, of all degrees, are interested in everything that concerns the intellectual man, even to the manner in which his linen is marked; in England the vast mass do not know, or care much, whether he has a shirt."

While this is so, the preaching of art-knowledge and taste cannot penetrate. French curiosity takes many indiscreet, nay indelicate, forms; yet its basis is noble. The worship is not of rank or the guinea-stamp, but of the exceptionally gifted with the Creator's highest gift to his creature. B. J.

#### CONGRESS OF GERMAN AUTHORS.

Amsterdam, Sept. 7, 1868.

THE Tenth Congress of Low German Authors, which closed its sittings on Wednesday last, was exceptionally brilliant and animated. All the Flemish writers of name, Mr. Hendrik Conscience (the famous novelist) amongst the rest, were in attendance, and those of Holland not less numerously represented.

A proposal to alter the title of the Association, and to add henceforth to the word "Congress" the adjectives "philological and social," instead of the qualifications "philological and literary," as heretofore, fell to the ground, and very properly so. The motion was read, but withdrawn; the Flemish declaring that they should all vote against it. Even had it been carried, after much angry discussion, it would have given rise to serious dissensions. Politics, which have been severely excluded from the discussions till now, would have introduced dangerous elements into the debates, and the purpose for which the Congress was established would have been completely lost. A social Low German Congress would, in fact, abolish the political condition of Belgium and Holland, and tend to obtain a situation as it existed before 1830. The Flemish like the Dutch, and the Dutch like the Flemish. They have both a common history, a common language, but the former do not seem to want political union with the latter. They like Belgium after all, and are fondly attached to its institutions.

Many interesting papers were read during the three days, and more than one fruitful discussion took place on topics connected with the language and the literary history of the Low Germans. Her Majesty the Queen of Holland and His Royal Highness Prince Frederic of the Netherlands honoured the Congress with their presence on Monday, the former complimenting Mr. Jan van Beers on a magnificent poem of his (inedited), entitled 'The War,' read by him in her presence, and which created immense sensation.

On Monday night there was a great concert in the Royal Theatre, the artists performing and the music given being exclusively national. On Tuesday a splendid banquet took place at Scheveningen (the well-known watering-place), over 300 members

of the Congress being present. The gathering ended on Wednesday with a concert and illumination in the Wood of the Hague and with fireworks, offered by the municipality. The next session will be in Louvain. A motion to make the Congress biennial was defeated by the enthusiasm of the audience, so that the eleventh congress will be held in 1869.

H. TIEDEMAN.

#### OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

RECENT researches have caused increasing interest to be felt in the observation of certain phenomena which can only be observed on the rare occasion of a total solar eclipse, and then only during the brief interval of the totality. The eclipse of August 17, which was visible in India, is remarkable as offering nearly the greatest possible duration of the total phase; and, accordingly, arrangements were made by different parties to profit by the occasion. Among others, the Royal Society sent out certain instruments, which, with the sanction of Colonel Walker, R.E., Director of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of that country, were entrusted to officers of the Survey. The principal instrument, which was entrusted to Lieut. Herschel, R.E., was specially designed for observing the spectra of the luminosities seen during the totality—namely, the "corona" and the so-called "red flames." The nature of the latter, more especially, is highly enigmatical; and some of the conflicting theories which have been started to account for them might be expected to be either confirmed or upset if the character of their spectrum could be ascertained. The following telegram, addressed to the President of the Royal Society, has been received from Lieut. Herschel:—"Frequent clouds; one flame caught; the bright lines seen; none of corona [none of corona]; polarization solar.—Belgaum, August 20th, 3 p.m." The fact that the spectrum of the "flames" shows bright lines proves that they are *self-luminous* and of *gaseous* nature; while the polarization of the light of the corona shows that a part, if not the whole, of it is simply light reflected from the sun.

Dr. W. J. Russell, one of the Secretaries of the Chemical Section of the British Association, has been elected to succeed Dr. Matthiessen in the Chair of Chemistry in St. Mary's Hospital.

With an asperity for which his recent publication prepared us, commenting on our kindly notice of 'For Cambria,' Mr. James Kenward assures us that "the only poem not in English" contained in his volume of verse "is a Breton translation by M. de la Villemarqué." Vindicating himself on another point, he observes, "I by no means expect 'the world in general' to learn any one of the Celtic dialects. I only recommend the leaders of the world's opinions to do so. And if they prefer the alternative of translations, I would particularly recommend them to support, by purse and pen, the endeavours that are from time to time made to prepare new editions of printed works and to issue effective translations of the large body of manuscripts yet existing."

The big balloon which was announced to begin on last Monday a series of partial ascents, failed to satisfy the expectations which its advertisers had occasioned. A considerable number of persons interested in aeronautics, and idlers with a taste for novel sights, assembled at the appointed time on the outskirts of Ashburnham Park, King's Road, Chelsea, when they found the doors of the hoarding closed, and a laconic notice that the entertainment was postponed for a week. No statement was made of the causes of the delay; but many rumours were current as to the nature of the miscarriage. "It has burst," observed a misanthropic omnibus driver, as he guided his horses through the crowd. "It ought to have waited a little longer, and bursted at full height. If it had let a basketful of guinea gentry down with a quick run, there would have been a sensation."

Victor Hugo's forthcoming novel, the scenes of which are laid in England, at the end of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth century, will probably be called 'L'Homme qui Rit,' or 'Par Ordre du Roi.'

The Editor of *Hanover Square* writes:—"As you have censured the words of Signor Randegger's song in the September number of *Hanover Square*, I feel that it is due to Mr. Campbell Clarke to state that they are wrongfully attributed to him; though, in so doing, I must plead guilty to a certain amount of editorial neglect. Two English versions of Signor Dell' Ongaro's words were prepared; the one adopted for publication being by Mr. Campbell Clarke. By a mistake still inexplicable to me, the other version was printed; and, I may add, that the substitution escaped the notice of the composer as well as of myself."

Our announcement of the repairs that are being carried forward in St. Swithin's Church has brought us a letter from Mr. Hall, of 25, Paternoster Row, —a gentleman interested in civic improvements, and well qualified to have a voice in their direction,—who inquires whether it is not much like throwing money away to spend it on new seats for the twenty or thirty persons who constitute the ordinary congregation of that place of worship. Noticing how little has hitherto resulted from the legislation which authorizes the suppression of churches no longer required in the City, and their removal to newer quarters of the metropolis where there is a deficiency of church accommodation, Mr. Hall further asks whether the time has not arrived for prompt action under the powers accorded by the Bishop of London's Act. Of the 74 City churches remaining out of the 82 edifices that either escaped destruction by the Great Fire or were rebuilt after the conflagration, our Correspondent urges that 41 are all that are demanded by the needs of the locality in which they are situated, and that the remaining 33 might be withdrawn from the City without any detriment to the religious life of central London, and might be re-established in suburban districts, to the great benefit and gratitude of their inhabitants. The 15 churches that stand without the City walls our Correspondent would not touch, but urges the transplantation of 33 edifices occupying ground within the walls. If this suggestion were adopted, the City within the walls would still be left with 26 churches—i. e. one church for each of its 26 wards. "So far as practicable," continues Mr. Hall, "the parishes in each ward should have one common church; in most cases, where the area of a ward is confined within the walls, I think one church would be fully adequate to its requirements; in the few wards that extend beyond the walls, a second or even a third church may be found needful." Without committing ourselves to an approval of the details of this scheme, we do not hesitate to commend its main principles and aim. The object in view has received the sanction of the Legislature, and the disinclination which the Commissioners and parochial authorities have shown to act under the powers with which the law has invested them, calls for regretful animadversion. That the churches continue to fulfil the ends for which they were erected, no one ventures to say at a time when the average congregation of several of them is under a score persons. But the spectacle of churches almost devoid of worshippers, whilst the services of the Church are being performed in them, discredited though it is to the national reputation for devoutness, is less mischievous to society than the existence of large tracts of well-built and populous streets, so ill provided with the means of public worship that a considerable proportion of their inhabitants are practically debarred from participation in the observances and congregational instruction of the church to which they nominally belong. It is a fact to be lamented that, under existing circumstances, church accommodation in most of the newer quarters of London is so costly that it has become the luxury of the decidedly prosperous. The average cost of pew-room for a family of eight or ten persons, residing in any of the new districts where educated people of the middle class mostly find their homes, ranges from 20l. to 25l. per annum; sums, doubtless, of no great moment to opulent householders, but of such magnitude to men of barely sufficient means that many a father, bringing up a young family on a narrow income, is compelled to place a family pew in the category of indulgences which he cannot afford, or, still worse,

in the list of almost needful things which he and his household must do their best to shift without. At best, such a man reduces the church-going of his family and its concomitant expenses to a minimum, just as he exercises stringent economy in every other department of his expenditure. In many cases, he and his offspring lose every sentiment of personal attachment to the church of their ancestors and earlier years, whereas, under conditions more favourable to the regard in which a church should be held by its members, they might have become enthusiastic supporters of the Establishment. Of course, to those who cherish no affection for the Church, and still more to those who question its usefulness, this state of things either occasions no concern or is a source of positive satisfaction. But to those who hold that the instruction and discipline of congregational worship are valuable influences in the religious life of the nation, it must necessarily appear a condition of affairs that should be terminated as soon as possible.

A local notability has passed from us in the person of Rhydderch Fôn, otherwise known as Mr. J. Prydderch Williams, who for several years, and up to the time of his death, discharged the somewhat vexatious duties of Secretary of the Eisteddfod. The journalists of the Principality mention the deceased gentleman with respect and affection; and at least one of them attributes his last illness to anxiety occasioned by the duties and responsibilities of his office. "Anxiety," remarks this chronicler, with a frankness which will not raise the great institution in the respect of the wealthier sections of society, "wears out the human system, and anxiety such as Rhydderch has had to encounter year after year, without the 'backing up' of a single wealthy landowner or moneyed patriot, has undoubtedly worn him to his grave. A great institution like the Eisteddfod cannot be carried on without guarantees—not a single property owner in North or South Wales has come forward to guarantee the responsibilities of the man at the helm." Some people will question whether an association that is so completely without the support of the great owners of property can justly style itself "a great national institution."

We all know how great a figure the Speaker Lenthal made, when he told Charles the First, at his visit to the House, that he had neither eyes nor ears except as the House should direct. But there is a pretty little imitation which is not so well known, and which led to amusing comparison at the time. About 1814, when politics were permitted in the Union (undergraduate) Debating Society at Cambridge, the young men were so strong against existing institutions that the University authorities determined to put down the Society. The proctors accordingly made their appearance at a debate, and commanded the meeting to disperse. In the chair was a young undergraduate named William Whewell, since so well known. He politely informed the proctors that he had no power over the meeting, of which he was the servant; but that if they would have the goodness to retire, he had no doubt the question of adjournment would be regularly put and disposed of. The proctors had the good sense to take the hint, and the meeting was adjourned. The Society was afterwards permitted to resume, on condition of the politics of the last twenty-five years—we believe—being excluded. Accordingly, at a meeting of, say March 18, 1825, there would be, perhaps, such a question as "Was the conduct of William Pitt, up to March 18, 1800, deserving of public approbation?" We believe that even this restriction has since been removed. A rule of this sort may often be evaded. We have heard of a college in which it existed, and in which the youngsters wanted to settle whether Bishops ought to sit in the House of Lords. So they put it thus: "Was the conduct of William the Conqueror, in annexing baronies to bishoprics, calculated to advance the public interest?"

The publication of the Premier's baptismal registration, taken from the archives of St. Andrew's, Holborn, is causing a little talk and surprise. The entry, which is in a certain way a curiosity of

literature, runs thus: "Baptized, July 31, 1817, Benjamin, said to be about twelve years old, son of Isaac and Maria D'Israeli, King's Road, gentleman." The ceremony was performed by a clergyman named Thimbleby.

The rule given by the "schoolmaster," last week, for the spelling of the diphthongs *ei* and *ie* when representing the long *e* sound has, like all rules, some exceptions. Though the following words do not begin with *c*, they take *ei*, and not *ie*: *geir-falcon*, *neif* (1. fist; 2. bond-woman), *seignior*, *seize*, and its compounds *seisin*, *seizable*, &c., *teal* (the lime-tree). The rule was not meant to apply to *ei* when sounded as a long *a*, as in *deign*, *feign*, *heir*, *neigh*, *neighbour*, *reign*, *rein*, *reindeer*, *reins*, *seine*, *veil*, *vein*, *weigh*; or *i* long, as in *height*; or *e* short, as in *leisure*.

American journals announce the death, after a lingering and painful illness, of an inventor whose services to music, though not of the highest value, are of such importance that his departure will be heard of with regret by many persons on this side the Atlantic. Jeremiah Carhart, the inventor of the Melodeon—the leading principles of which instrument have been adopted by our present makers of parlour or cabinet organs—was an intelligent and benevolent man, whose many amiable qualities endeared him to his workmen and a numerous private acquaintance.

Prof. D. Everett wishes to make the following corrections in our report of his paper on Rigidity, read in Section A. (see ante, p. 307):—"For 'hoist' read 'hoisting' read *twist* and *twisting*. For  $\frac{F}{T} - 1$  read  $\frac{T}{F} - 1$ . The numbers in the last sentence of the report should have been printed as decimals."

According to the latest intelligence received at Berlin, the German Arctic Expedition was, on the 18th of July, in latitude 80° 30' N., and longitude 5° E. This latitude is only 2° 5' less than that attained by Sir E. Parry in his celebrated boat-expedition.

THOMAS M'LEAN'S COLLECTION OF High-Class Modern Pictures and Water-Colour Drawings ALWAYS ON VIEW.—T. M'LEAN'S New Gallery, 7, Haymarket.

MR. MOREY'S COLLECTION OF MODERN HIGH-CLASS PICTURES is ON VIEW at the Royal Exchange Fine Arts Gallery, 24, Cornhill. This Collection contains examples of Rosa Bonheur—Clarkson Stanfield, R.A.—Meissonier—Alma-Tadema—Gérôme—Frère—Landelle—T. Faed, R.A.—John Phillip, R.A.—Leslie, R.A.—D. Roberts, R.A.—Frith, R.A.—Goodall, R.A.—Cooke, R.A.—Pickersell, R.A.—Erskine Nicol, R.A.—Le Jeune, R.A.—Andsell, R.A.—Frost, R.A.—Pettie, R.A.—Yeames, R.A.—Dobson, R.A.—Cooper, R.A.—Gale—Marks—Liddell—George Smith—Linnell, sen.—Peter Graham—Oakes—H. W. B. Davis—Baxter. Also Drawings by Hunt, Cox, Birket Foster, Duncan, Topham, F. Walker, E. Warren, &c.—Admission on presentation of address card.

HERR SCHALCKENBRACH will perform daily, at a Quarter to Three and a Quarter to Eight, on the New Electric Organ, with Professor Pepper's New Lecture on the last "Great Solar Eclipse."—Re-engagement of George Buckland, Esq. for his Popular Musical Entertainment.—All the other Lectures and Entertainments as usual at the ROYAL POLYTECHNIC.—Open from Twelve to Five and Seven to Ten.—Admission to the whole, 1s.

## SCIENCE

### BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

#### SECTION A.—MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

MONDAY.

'Report of Committee on Electrical Standards,' by Sir W. THOMSON.

'Report of the Rainfall Committee for the Year 1867-8,' by Mr. G. J. Symons, Secretary.—Adopting the same arrangement as on previous occasions, steady progress with the extraction and classification of published and unpublished records, and in the examination of rain-gauges, is first noted. By the tables of records of the inclined and tipping-funnelled gauges erected at Rotherham, under the charge of M. Chimes, the necessity is distinctly shown of all observers keeping the tops of their gauges strictly level. In summer, a tilt of one degree will cause a difference of 0.2 per cent. of the amount of rain collected, and in winter of 2 or 3 per cent. It is not unusual to find gauges two or three degrees from level, which would give a total error of 5 per cent. if they were

always errors neutral for observations together. and each have been striking. Dr. Mil about 2 The us to win to incre maxim deposit of the there is it passes a given did not rally ha in the leave t little of two yo follow. continu the earl instrum by Mr. angl rain-ga position. In the the va annual month appear princip when it is la table a hope ensurin and so This ha all me has dis many sion. the ste obtain for all since 1 the ex arrang late br served exten ment of a station vary, amoun some maxim variati so far these which 4. The mi later i and exten In Sec found, the oth imum minim the re very t forego observ would are fe thus g 'Re GLAIS



always inclined towards the wind; but as the errors are never intentional, it is probable they neutralize one another; but it would be far better for observers to be careful to avoid the cause altogether. The new stations established in the central and eastern portion of the English lake district have been worked with great regularity, and some striking results obtained. In the district to which Dr. Miller confined his attention, the fall averages about 2 inches, and at one spot reaches 165 inches. The usual influence of a range of hills or mountains to windward is, if the station be close to the hill, to increase the fall; that is to say, ordinarily the maximum is on the N.E. slope, but the normal deposition having been exceeded, in consequence of the cooling and condensing influence of the hill, there is so much the less vapour in the cloud when it passes onward; hence at, say, five miles N.E. of a given hill, the fall would be less than if the hill did not exist. This being the case, it might naturally have been thought that the enormous rainfall in the valleys of Wastdale and Borrowdale would leave the district immediately N.E. thereof with little or no rain; but the observations of the last two years show that this result does not there follow. The examination of rain-gauges has been continued as opportunity offered, and on exactly the same plan as previously, except that a small instrument termed an altimeter has been designed by Mr. Symons for his own use in determining the angle of elevation of trees, buildings, &c. above rain-gauges, and therefrom the suitability of the position in which the gauge may have been placed. In the last report attention was drawn briefly to the variations in the proportions of the mean annual rainfall measured in the different calendar months; and a table was given from which it appeared that at stations south of the Tweed the principal part of the rainfall occurs in summer, when the total fall is small, and in winter, when it is large. But the data used in preparing that table extended over a period of only ten years; a hope was therefore expressed that during the ensuing year a full investigation might be made, and some further light thrown upon the subject. This has now to some extent been done, though, as in all meteorological investigations, the further search has discovered fresh difficulties and complications, many of which must stand over for future discussion. The following, however, is a brief account of the steps which have been taken and the results obtained. The mean annual and monthly rainfall for all available stations in each decimal period since 1730 were first calculated, and tabulated to the extent of 40,000 readings, the stations being arranged alphabetically for reference. To recapitulate briefly the results, it is found that in England and Wales the following rules are generally observed in the distribution of rain during the different months of the year:—1. If we take an average of a considerable number of years at various stations, not only do the mean annual amounts vary, but the monthly percentages of those amounts also vary considerably. 2. That (with some exceptions) the time of year when the maximum monthly amount occurs varies with the variations in the mean annual rainfall. 3. That so far as the present investigation has proceeded, these laws hold good in all three districts into which the country is presumed to be divided. 4. That at stations where the rainfall is very large the minimum monthly fall occurs about two months later in the year than at those of small amount; and that in the former case three periods of extremes are more clearly defined than in the latter. In Scotland a summer maximum is not generally found, but an autumn preponderance is noticed at the other stations, and a very decided winter maximum at the wet stations. The position of the minimum does not appear to vary much. In Ireland the returns are not sufficiently numerous to give very trustworthy results. It will be seen from the foregoing that not at all the stations are these rules observable: were it so, a small number of returns would suffice to show them. But the exceptions are few, and may often be arranged in groups; thus giving hope of discovering the causes.

'Report on Luminous Meteors,' by Mr. J. GLAISHER.

'On the Meteor Shower of August, 1868,' by Mr. G. FORBES.

'On some Meteorological Results obtained in the Observatory at Rome,' by PADRE SECCHI.—The author began by stating the necessity that the climate of each observatory should be accurately known. He then expounded how he has calculated the temperature for every day of the year by simply taking the means for forty years of the same day of the year. The result was, that even after so long a term of observations, no regular curve was obtained, not even if it was tried to smooth the irregularities by Mr. Bloxam's method. The author, however, has not used this method except for five days, and only to ascertain that the irregularities did not disappear. The comparison of the normal curve obtained for Rome with those which are given for Paris, Berlin, Greenwich, Prague, Vienna, Bologna, show evidently that these irregularities are not due to chance, since they appear also in many other places, but they are certainly an effect of the re-action of the sun's heat on some particular places of the earth, combined with the law of successive propagation of storms. The law of this propagation has been studied, and it was found that the storms propagate from the British Islands to Italy in about two days; and the lecturer pointed out the station of Nairn, in Scotland, as the best station which may indicate by telegraphic despatch the future state of weather in Rome. He afterwards entered into a full explanation of the relation existing between the magnetical and meteorological perturbations, and he stated that in Rome these perturbations are signals of approaching storms. He attempted to explain them by the electrical currents which accompany the meteorological changes. He said that this theory is not commonly admitted by English observers, because, perhaps, there is not in this country so powerful a display of electricity as on the continent, and perhaps it has not been sufficiently investigated how far this relation goes. Whatever may be the cause of this difference (if it is true), it is certainly necessary that it should be thoroughly studied, to which purpose a magnetical observatory with photographic records would be very useful, if it could be established also in Rome. The author, however, did not attribute all magnetical variations to meteorological changes. He stated that, from the observations made in Rome both on the sun's spots and magnetical instruments, a splendid confirmation was obtained of the minimum of solar spots, combined with the minimum of variation in magnetical elements, both in respect to regular and irregular oscillations. He concluded by insisting on the great advantage which accrued to the art of navigation in the Italian ports from the telegraphic indications of English meteorological states; and he noticed that a regular service is already in activity between Rome and the port of Civita Vecchia for this purpose, to the great satisfaction of the sailors.

A discussion then followed, in which Mr. STEWART and Mr. GLAISHER pointed out the want of correspondence between the storms and the perturbations in this country,—to which the author replied, stating very strongly the great many times that he has observed magnetical perturbations during storms. The earth-currents produced by these propagate instantaneously, but storms travel comparatively very slowly; and this is the reason why the perturbation in Rome precedes the storm. This point being very positive, it only remains to find the reasons of this difference.

'On Synoptic Weather-Charts of the Indian Ocean,' by Mr. C. MELDRUM.—The author stated that the Meteorological Society of Mauritius had, since the 1st of January, 1853, been tabulating the observations made daily on board vessels navigating the Indian Ocean, and that now 215,000 observations of 24 hours each had been collected, which, for some years, gave a daily average of 70 to 80 such observations, affording information respecting the direction and force of the wind, the pressure and temperature of the air, cloud, fog, rain, lightning, &c., and the state of the sea. Without undervaluing the importance of average or mean charts, Mr. Meldrum considered that synoptic or synchronous charts, showing the state of the winds and

weather over extensive areas at the same moment of time, from day to day, were far more calculated to afford an insight into the conditions and laws of weather changes than averages, in which various disturbances and deviations, or even periodicities, were often entirely concealed. He had attempted, therefore, fourteen years ago, to bring out a series of synoptic weather-charts for the Indian Ocean, and had published some in 1856, but, for various reasons, of which the fewness of the observations was one, the work was abandoned. Subsequently several hundreds of such charts were prepared, and it was now proposed to issue those for 1861. The daily average number of observations for that year, collected at Mauritius, was 70, and, with the addition of those in the office of the Meteorological Committee of the Royal Society, with a copy of which he was to be favoured, and of those taken at the Indian and other observatories, he believed that the total daily average would be little short of 100. Mr. Meldrum then exhibited engraved specimens of the charts, namely, those for the 16th of January and the 12th of February, 1861, showing the existence on those days of several hurricanes in different parts of the ocean, and after describing the method of construction and the means by which the charts were rendered synchronous referred to the connexion between the direction and force of the wind and the isobaric curves. In conclusion he ventured to think that a series of such charts would be of some service to science and navigation, and that it was to the system of mapping the daily weather over extensive portions of the earth's surface that meteorology was likely to owe its chief progress for some time to come. Who could doubt, that if we had had charts showing the direction and force of the wind, the pressure and temperature of the air, &c., over the North Atlantic, the Continent of Europe, and the British Islands, at a certain hour on each day, even for the last twelve months, we should now be in a position to solve partly or wholly questions of the utmost practical importance?

'On Storm-Warnings in Mauritius,' by Mr. C. MELDRUM.—By charting the daily weather over the Indian Ocean for a number of years, and examining the connexion between the changes which occurred at Mauritius and at various distances on all sides of it, Mr. Meldrum ascertained that no heavy gale took place within a distance of at least 1,500 miles the existence of which was not made known in the island by the barometer, winds and weather. When signs of a gale or hurricane at sea appeared a notice was sent to the local newspapers, stating where the disturbance existed, and in what direction the storm was travelling. The author explained in detail the grounds upon which these notices were issued, showing that there were three classes of storms in the Indian Ocean south of the equator, and that they all affected the weather and barometer at Mauritius. As a general rule, the barometer never fell one-tenth of an inch below its mean height for the season except when a gale existed at a distance. The results obtained in Mauritius showed that the rules observed there could be successfully used on board ship in the Indian Ocean. He believed that the existence and course of storms in extra-tropical countries would yet be known at a distant station with far more certainty and precision than at present, for the winds in extra-tropical climates were just as subject to law as those within the tropics.

'On the Resemblance and Contrasts of the Climates of Mauritius and Natal,' by Dr. MANN.

'Abstract of Meteorological Observations made at Pietermaritzburg, Natal,' by Dr. MANN.

'Sur une Action Particulière de la Lumière sur les Sels d'Argent,' by Prof. MORREN.

#### SECTION B.—CHEMICAL SCIENCE. MONDAY.

'On a System of Chemical Philosophy,' by Dr. OTTO RICHTER.

'On the Physical Properties of Two Coloured Compounds,' by Dr. MEUSEL.—Dr. Meusel exhibited an experiment, showing the rapid change in the physical state and colour of compounds of iodine and metallic bodies when subjected to a moderate heat. Slips of paper covered over with

yellow powder were instantly changed red, and from red to purple. On the slightest shaking of the paper in the air, the original colour returned. A further account of the matter is to be given in the *Journal of the Chemical Society*.

'On Paraffin and its Products of Oxidation,' by Dr. MEUSEL and Mr. C. H. GILL.

Prof. WILLIAMSON said, among the more remarkable products that had recently been obtained from coal, was a particularly beautiful wax-like substance that was used for making candles. It was, however, found that its general qualities were peculiarly incapable of combining with anything, and that nothing could be made with it except candles. The researches that had been made were of great interest to chemists generally.

'On Chemistry as a Branch of Education,' by Mr. S. WOOD.—The author divided chemistry, for the purposes of education, into two distinct and separate studies: first, chemistry as a branch of education, teaching facts useful to be known; and, secondly, used as an instrument or means of general, intellectual, and practical training. With respect to the first, he considered the subject under three heads—to whom could it be taught? how most easily and practically? when and at what age? With regard to the first, he would say, from personal experience, that the most elementary and useful facts of chemistry might be taught to all, from the child of six to the man of sixty. As to the second, among the readiest means of communicating to a person the facts of chemistry, were well-arranged lectures and classes, where the master performed the experiments and the pupil looked on, the latter not being allowed to take part in the manipulation of the experiments. The mind of the pupil was thus free to observe and store up all that occurred. He drew a great distinction between lectures and lessons. A lecture was a formal discourse, generally to a comparatively large number of persons; while a class lesson implied a much more intimate communication with the master in the way of question, reply, &c. In a class, although the subject might be dry and dull, the master could command an amount of attention from a limited number of pupils; whereas, with one hundred pupils he would have some whispering, others rubbing feet, and others blowing noses—others playing the fool generally. All lectures should be interesting as one of their first recommendations, and, he would add, attractive. At lectures questions should be rarely asked, while, at lessons, continually. He thought six was a good number for a chemical class, and it ought not to exceed eight. With reference to the age, although it was quite true many young persons were capable of receiving benefit from experiments on the elementary parts of sciences, yet it must be confessed that few facts and little real useful information could be permanently lodged in their minds until they were capable of reading, writing, and of working decimals. Under the head of chemistry, as a means of general intellectual and practical training, he asserted that up to the present, it had never been properly taught in school as a means of education. To use chemistry, the student must spend not one hour but hours at a time. This took up so much time, as to be impracticable in the present school curriculum, and required a larger number and a better educated class of men than at present existed, as teachers of practical science. He also contended that laboratory practice was only suited for boys of fourteen years and upwards. The plan never having been thoroughly tried, heads of schools did not believe, from past experience, that there were really the benefits to be derived from chemical study which its advocates maintained. Up to the present time, chemistry had never been practically taught in schools as a means of education. The present method of teaching in schools was by qualitative analysis only; that was, by testing according to the plan laid down in analytical tables. This method neither gave accuracy of manipulation, thorough or exact knowledge of the science, nor interested the pupils, and was therefore almost useless, and time nearly wasted. As a means of intellectual training, mathematics or classics were generally employed, and were greatly in favour; but there was this main distinction between mathematics and practical laboratory

work—in mathematics the exact data were all given, in practical chemistry they were not. Thus a student in the laboratory ought to have inculcated correct reasoning, or, as Prof. Faraday called it, *judgment*; independent thought on facts; habits of observation and patience—"to learn to labour and to wait." It was because schoolmasters had hitherto seldom seen a corresponding benefit accrue either to themselves, or the boys, for the expense and frequent annoyance caused by the so-called teaching of practical chemistry that this branch of study was in such ill odour. Chemistry could not be taught in the same cut-and-dried manner as arithmetic, &c. It required patience, carefulness, thought, judgment, accuracy, and could not be hurried. Practical science was not the accumulation of mere facts, but required the assistance of the eye and touch. From experience he could bear witness to the fact that masters, university men, who had wished to learn chemistry, so as to be able to teach it to boys, were always in a hurry, and could not wait to properly perform their experiments; imagining that there was some royal road to the result. He proposed, in order to meet the difficulty of the study taking up so much time, that all large schools of, say 150 boys, should have their own laboratory and a resident master thoroughly capable of managing and teaching boys science. That all boys of fourteen and upwards should give up, for at least six months, to the laboratory, three days in the week. For small schools there should be a united auxiliary establishment for each neighbourhood. A proper teacher for science ought to be a man of university education, and a thorough practical manipulator. Men would devote themselves to this work if there was a prospect of their earning a livelihood. At the universities natural science was looked down upon, and not encouraged. Talk of studying science for the love of her as they would, very few would, and very few could, make the necessary sacrifices. As long as all the money and all the university honours were reserved for classics and mathematics there was little inducement for the student to study natural science. A man could not be fitted to become a teacher of practical chemistry in six months—it took several years. Heads of schools had no difficulty in getting first-class university men for 300*l.* a year, but they could not teach in the laboratory. Chemical science had never yet had a fair chance as a means of education, nor had schoolmasters generally correct ideas of what the science was capable of doing.

'Note on Löwig's Researches on the Action of Sodium Amalgam on Oxalic Ether,' by Mr. A. R. CATTON.

'On the Absorption of Gases by Charcoal,' by Mr. A. SMITH.

'On Coal Tar Bases,' by Mr. J. DEWAR.

#### SECTION C.—GEOLOGY. MONDAY.

Dr. P. M. DUNCAN read portions of his first Report on British Fossil Corals. The Report dealt with the relations of the fossil corals found in the various geological formations to those now living in the seas of various parts of the world. Of the fossil corals found in the chalk, the report said they presented a remarkable assemblage of forms, and indicated a deep-sea condition.

'On the Genus *Clisiophyllum* from the Scotch Coal-fields,' by Dr. P. M. DUNCAN.

'On Artificial Rocking-stones—an Experiment,' by Mr. W. R. GROVE.—The author said, "Some time ago, during an excursion in Cornwall, my attention was naturally directed to rocking-stones, and those approximations to rocking-stones which are seen in the granite where it is exposed to the action of the heat and cold, air and water. I presume that I need not argue here that rocking-stones are natural results, and not superposed on their pedestals, as was once believed, by the hand of man. Throughout the greater part of the granite rocks of the west coast of Cornwall, formations are to be seen approaching in character to rocking-stones, or to discoid piles like the Cheesewring. If we suppose a slab of stone of a parallelopiped form lying on another, both having flat surfaces, or, in

other words, such slabs as are formed by fissures in horizontal and perpendicular directions, which are common in exposed granite rocks, the attrition and disintegration produced by changes of weather, of temperature, &c., would necessarily act to the greatest extent at the corners, and next to that at the edges, because those parts expose respectively the greatest surfaces compared with the bulk of the stone. This would tend to round off all the angles, and gradually change the rhomb more or less towards an oblate spheroid. This would account for the Cheesewring, &c. But, then, it may be asked, why should this process gradually work on to a rocking-stone? In other words, why should the last unworn point, points, or line be in the line joining the centre of gravity of the upper stone with that of the earth? Such an accident, it may be said, might happen, but the chances are almost infinity to a unit against it. Not so; assume the wearing away between the slabs to reach a point which is not in the line of centres of gravity, the upper stone would then fall on one side, leaving the unworn point most exposed to climatal and, probably, to electro-chemical action from the water lying in the angle of the crevice, evaporation being less rapid there than at other parts. This point would then be worn away, and the stone would fall back a little; then fresh action upon new surfaces, another oscillation, and so on. The effects which I have explained as taking place by steps would, in fact, take place by insensible progression. By assuming this process, unless there be some interfering action, it becomes not improbable that the last point or line worn away would be the point or line on which, from its being in the line of centres of gravity, the upper stone would rock. After seeing the great Logan-stone near the Land's End, I traced so many other approximations to rocking-stones along that coast that I became satisfied, as far as one ought to be satisfied on any subject of human inquiry, that this was a correct theory. It then occurred to me, if this view be true, may we not be able to hasten the operations of nature so as to produce artificially (if such a term may be used) the rocking-stone results? A very little thought suggested the experiment. Two parallelopipeds of iron, which had been made for keepers of magnets, were taken similar, but that one was twice the length of the other. The shorter was superposed on the longer, and both immersed in sulphuric acid diluted with three times its volume of water; some nitric acid was added at first to hasten the corrosion. The liquid was changed from time to time as it became nearly saturated, but without changing the position of the iron. At the end of three or four days the pieces of iron were taken out, washed, and examined, when the upper one was found to be a perfect analogue of a rocking-stone, so delicately balanced on two points that it could be made to rock by blowing on it with the mouth. [Result shown.] It will be observed in this experiment that the iron rocks only in one direction. Such is the case with the great Logan-stone, and I believe with the greater number of rocking-stones. It is obviously more probable that a stable equilibrium should be obtained on two points than on one. I have not yet got a specimen to rock or spin upon one point. [Approximation to this shown by two zinc discs, and explained.] If the surfaces of the slabs be in such close contact that there is not room for circulation of the saturated liquid, a formation like those near the Cheesewring will be effected, or if a number of discs or slabs be superposed and the lower ones more exposed to the weather, and to catch the dripping and drifting water from the upper, we should get a formation exactly like the Cheesewring, which may be called an incipient compound rocking-stone, in that each slab is worn away at the edges, and the lower one much more than the upper, so that if left alone, which it will not be, and if it does not topple over too soon, which it probably will, it might well end in a rocking-stone. I should not be surprised if it rocked now in a great storm.

'On New Discoveries connected with Quaternary Deposits,' by Mr. C. MOORE.

'On the Skeleton of a Fossil Whale, recently found on the Eastern Coast of Suffolk,' by Dr. E. CRISP.



'On the Classification of the Secondary Strata of England,' by Mr. H. G. SEELEY.

'The Cretaceous Strata of England and the North of France compared with those of the West, South-West, and South of France, and the North of Africa,' by Prof. H. COGUARD.—The author gave a detailed account of the cretaceous system of France, compared with the leading features of that country. The characteristic fossils of each were mentioned, and their differences referred to at some length.

'On some Cavities in the Gravel of the Little Ouse,' by Mr. J. EVANS.

## SECTION D.—BIOLOGY.

MONDAY.

## Department of Zoology and Botany.

'Report on Shetland Sponges, with Description of a remarkable New Genus,' by the Rev. A. M. NORMAN.—More than eighty species of sponges have been met with, and thirty-three of these have not as yet been found elsewhere. Their description, from the specimens procured by the Dredging Committee, are contained in Dr. Bowerbank's work. Specimens of all these species were exhibited to the Section, and, in addition, several new and as yet undescribed species. Among these are three unusually fine forms: one, a fan-shaped *Isodictya*, exceeding in size all other species of the genus except *I. infundibuliformis*, and of most elegant structure, to which Dr. Bowerbank proposes to give the name *I. laciniosa*; the second, which is another of the largest of British spongiades, is the type of a new genus, characterized by having the skeleton without fibre, composed of an irregular network of polyspiculous fagot-like bundles, the spicules of which are compactly cemented together at the middle, but are radiating at the terminations, which will be named by Dr. Bowerbank *Raphioderma coacervata*; the third is also the type of a new and very remarkable genus, for which the name of *Oceanapia* is proposed. Fragments of this sponge had been frequently dredged in previous years; and portions of the bulbous base are the *Isodictya robusta* of Bowerbank; while the cloace are his *Desmacidon Jeffreysii*. During the present year's dredging, the Committee have at length procured perfect specimens, which prove to be very remarkable both in form and structure. The form and size are that of a full-grown turnip, the rind being of usual sponge structure, though unusually close, firm and compact. From the crown of the turnip there arise more or less numerous cloacae—sometimes simple, sometimes branched, and from three to seven inches high. From the opposite side (whence the roots of the turnip would spring) there proceed somewhat similar processes to those of the crown, but of much smaller size. These appear to be used for purposes of attachment, as, in one instance, they tightly grasp a stone. The whole interior of the sponge is, as it were, a cup filled with sarcodæ, of which the largest example must have contained fully half a pint: internal tubes, continuous with the external cloacæ, of delicate structure, proceed downwards from their base into the centre of the sponge, and are there bathed in the mass of sarcodæ. The distribution and arrangement of the fibres and spicules are very varied in the different parts of the sponge; but the whole is built up by rather short, stout, needle-formed spicules, which are acute at both ends. The only other form is an excessively minute semi-circular spicule, which is abundant on the dermal membrane.

'On some Organisms which live at the bottom of the North Atlantic, in depths of 6,000 to 15,000 Feet,' by Prof. HUXLEY.—In the year 1857 Prof. Huxley examined and reported upon specimens of mud obtained from the bottom of the North Atlantic, and his observations appeared in a Report, published in 1858, on the so-called Telegraph Plateau, under the title, 'Deep-Sea Soundings in the North Atlantic Ocean.' He there described certain small oval particles of carbonate of lime, as coccoliths. Dr. Wallich, in 1860 to 1861, described in papers on life from the deep-sea soundings, in addition to the coccoliths, bodies which he called coccospheres, and which he considered to be

the source of the former. Mr. Sorby has made the interesting discovery of coccoliths in the chalk, and has also examined the deep-sea soundings, and thrown some light on their history; but now Prof. Huxley has re-examined his specimens and others with a much higher power of the microscope than he previously used, namely, a one-twelfth of Ross, and he has been able to throw considerable light on the history of both coccoliths and coccospheres. He shows that, first, there are two kinds of coccoliths, both in the Atlantic mud and in the chalk—the one having a more complex structure than the other kind; secondly, that both these are developed in a gelatinous granular substance; thirdly, that they are not derived from the coccospheres, as Dr. Wallich supposed. The slimy material which is drawn up in the deep-sea soundings owes its stickiness in great part to the presence of agglomerations of small protoplasmic masses of soft gelatinous matter, in which the coccoliths and coccospheres appear. Prof. Huxley considers that the coccoliths have the same sort of relation to the living gelatinous matter around them which the crystalline spicules of the sea-jellies or radiolaria have to their surrounding jelly. The gelatinous matter of the coccoliths contains granules aggregated in groups, about one-thousandth of an inch in length, or less, and each of these Prof. Huxley would regard as a distinct being. The largest coccoliths are the sixteen-hundredth of an inch in length. Prof. Huxley described the whole structure of coccospheres, coccoliths and jelly-like matter with great minuteness. He considered that we had here evidence of a wide-spread and new form of life at this great depth in the Atlantic sea-bed, but it was impossible to say whether these jelly-like organisms with their coccoliths were animal or vegetable. They reminded him of the *Urchleim* of the Germans, in their wide-spread occurrence forming a living paste on the floor of the Atlantic, such as some persons supposed more complex organisms to be developed from. Each mass of granules was probably a distinct being, with its own processes or pseudopodia when living, but when dead they run together and form the slimy mass.

'Remarks on Language and Mythology as Departments of Biological Science,' by Mr. E. B. TYLOR.—The treatment of accounts of the civilization of tribes of man as details of local geography is connected with a popular notion that these topics are finally disposed of by descriptive treatment; and this notion, in the writer's opinion, is prevalent enough to be a serious obstacle to knowledge. Thus it is far from being a trivial matter of classification that details of known culture should come under discussion as topics of biology, where, if they have any claim to attention, they must be perused as facts to be classified, and referred to uniform and consistent laws. To show that the phenomena of civilization, in spite of their extreme difficulty and complexity, are amenable to such treatment as would be applicable to other biological investigations in which law and order are to be sought for throughout masses of multifarious details, was the object of the present paper. Certain special points of culture, taken from language and mythology, were brought forward to show how the notion of arbitrary causeless spontaneity in known action disappears when phenomena are classified in the proper group. In examining the different languages of mankind abundant traces are found of the art of counting by word, numbers having grown up from that primitive plan of counting on the fingers still so familiar to mankind. Again, as savages have reckoned on their fingers and toes, it appears to have struck them that their words for finger, hand, foot, &c. might be used to express numbers. Thus the Polynesians form the word *lima*, i.e. "hand," into a numeral meaning 5. Thus the Caribs have made words expressing "hand," "both hands," "feet and hands," into numerals equivalent to 5, 10, 20. Even among the rude nations of West Australia, who are usually found to possess no numeral beyond 2 or 3, the formation of hand-numerals has locally broken out, as they have been found to use the expression *mark-jin-bang-ga*, or "half the hands," for 5, and thence to count on to 15, which they call "the hand on either side and

half the feet." The immense series of facts of which they are illustrative exemplify the uniform results of a similar process of mental development which has occurred again and again among remote and savage tribes. As a second instance of such uniformity, examples were quoted from among a large number of the languages of the world, in which the interjections of affirmation and negation display a remarkable tendency to fall into vowels, mute or aspirated, as *aye, ii, hi, &c.* for "yes," and into labials, as *aan, nani, &c.* for "no." Thirdly, the repeated occurrence in remote and disconnected languages of the practice of "differentiating" by vowels, pronouns and adverbs of distance is to be ascribed to the uniform action of similar pronouns. Of this a single instance may be quoted from the Javan language, which distinguishes *iki* = this (close by), *ika* = that (at some distance), *iku* = that (further off). The popular notion of myths is, that they are free and unrestricted growths of fancy, and that the study of such baseless, unsubstantial fabrics of the imagination can lead to no precise or scientific results. But wider knowledge must dissipate this idea by showing that myths are intellectual developments to be traced to definite causes, like other products of the human mind. Thus the myth that, on a certain hill there was a battle of giants and monsters, will be probably interpreted by the fact that great fossil bones are really found on the spot. Again, the story of the presence of a race of men with tails in a particular district is apt to indicate the real existence of a tribe of aborigines or outcasts, like the *Miautsze* of China or the *Cagots* of France. The author dwelt especially on two "philosophic myths," invented again and again in the infancy of science to account for strictly physical phenomena. The Polynesian myth of *Mafine*, the subterranean god who causes the earthquake by shifting from shoulder to shoulder the earth which he carries, and many other similar myths, come under the common heading of myths of an earth-bearer, found in various regions to account for the occurrence of earthquakes. The myth of the Guarani of Brazil, that a jaguar and a huge dog pursue the sun and moon and devour them, which causes eclipses, is an instance from the wide-spread group of eclipse-myths of a similar kind. On this and other evidence the writer argued for the possibility of discovery in the phenomena of civilization, as in vegetable and animal structure, the presence of distinct laws, and attributed the now backward state of the science of culture to the non-adoption of the systematic methods of classification familiar to the naturalist.

'On the boring of certain Annelids,' by Dr. M'INTOSH.

'On the Proboscis of Ommatoplea,' by Dr. M'INTOSH.

'On a New Eschara from Cornwall,' by Mrs. C. W. PEACH.

The Rev. M. J. BERKELEY exhibited some prepared Specimens of *Agaricus*.

'On Type Polymorphism and Variation in Relation to the Origin of Species,' by Mr. B. T. LOWNE.

'On some of the Principal Modifications of the Receptacle,' by Prof. DICKSON.

'On the "Muffa" of the Sulphur Springs of Valdieri,' by Mr. M. MCGRIDGE.

## Department of Anatomy and Physiology.

'On Sixteen Eskimo Crania,' by Prof. ROLLESTON.

'On the Connexion between Chemical Constitution and Physiological Activity,' by Dr. C. BROWN.

'On the Physiology of Language, founded on Facts supplied by Cases of Disease of the Brain,' by Dr. H. JACKSON.—Defects of speech occur almost invariably with paralysis of one side of the body, called Hemiplegia, and strangely the right is nearly always the side paralyzed. In other words loss or defect of speech occurs from disease of the left side of the brain and very rarely, at all events, from disease of the right side. Dr. Jackson thinks that disease near the *corpus striatum* produces loss or defect of language, as this body is the part where the psychical processes of mind merge into those arbitrarily distinguished as physical. This is a partial acceptance in a looser

form of the doctrine of M. Broca, who locates what he calls the faculty of articulate language in the third left frontal convolution. Dr. Jackson considered the points raised at great length, and first with especial reference to intellectual and emotional language. The former suffers throughout in speaking, writing and sign-making, the latter escapes altogether in most cases. He then spoke of educated movements and of movements nearly perfect at birth, the rule being that the former only suffered in disease of the brain. He pointed out, however, that acquired movements at length became automatic, or, as they have been called, secondary automatic, and that some of these are left to the patient when voluntary speech is lost. He showed next that although patients cannot speak when they try, they may utter words when excited. Now it is to be carefully remembered that these patients are speechless because but one side of the brain, generally the left, is damaged. They do not speak with the other; at all events, they do not when they try. This alone shows, Dr. Jackson thinks, that the brain is not a double organ in the usually accepted sense of the expression. But the fact that the patients ejaculate, and that they can understand what is said and what is read to them demonstrates, Dr. H. Jackson thinks, that there are motor processes for words somewhere; for there must be subjective repetition of words when we understand what is read to us. This "somewhere" cannot in a person who has lost language be the left side, as damage of that side has made the person speechless. It is also to be observed that the patients cannot themselves read, nor even in most cases can they point out, letters, nor can they write from themselves, although they can copy. They cannot initiate the higher psychological movements; yet, although they cannot rouse up motor processes, others can. The conclusion Dr. H. Jackson has arrived at is briefly this, that in most people the left side of the brain is the leading side—the side of the so-called "will"—and that the right is the automatic side. This is in accordance with what Gratiolet has advanced, namely, that the left frontal convolutions are developed in advance of those of the right side. It is proper to add, however, that Gratiolet's observation has not been confirmed and has been denied by Carl Vogt. Dr. H. Jackson entered into other points and declared against any kind of geographical localization, and does not attempt to localize language, but simply the damage which makes the patient speechless. The following is an extract from the printed abstract which he circulated in the meeting:—"Admitting that 'speech resides' in every part of the brain, the author supposes that there are points—probably in Broca's convolutions—where the most immediate processes for talking are specially represented, and that there will be others also near the *corpus striatum*, where other acquired 'faculties'—for instance, the movements of the arm for playing the violin, &c., are specially represented, but that there is no localization in the sense that one part superintends one thing and no other." In this matter, and in several others, he adopts the teaching of Spencer. He never uses the word "faculty" nor any of the many terms recently introduced, such as aphasia, aphemia, &c.

'On the Physiological Action of the Methyl Series,' by Dr. B. W. RICHARDSON.—This was a special Report to the Association in accordance with a resolution passed last year at Dundee. The research had four objects—1. To bring into actual practice some of the substances the physiological action of which the author had ascertained, and on which he had previously reported. 2. To examine more carefully the mode of action of those bodies of the series (anæsthetics) which produce sleep with insensibility to pain. 3. To investigate the action of some other bodies of the series which have not yet been studied by physiologists. 4. To test the antidotal influence of some of the substances against the action of certain alkaloidal poisons. Under the first of these heads, the author took up the consideration of bi-chloride of methylene, nitrite of amyl, and iodide of methyl. Bi-chloride of methylene, which he had introduced as a general anæsthetic at the last meeting, had been,

since that time, largely employed in various parts of the world, and had been found to act with excellent effect. Nitrite of amyl still continued to be used for relieving the spasm of *angina pectoris*; and iodide of methyl had been brought into use by the author, with remarkable promise in the cure of cancer. Under the second head, Dr. Richardson analyzed the various phenomena connected with the action of certain of the methyl and ethyl substances, explaining that many of them had one effect in common—that of producing sleep with insensibility to pain. He showed that this effect varied considerably with each substance in respect to danger. He then considered in detail the physical changes of blood as affected by the various compounds, their influence on the functions of circulation and respiration, and on the animal temperature and the influence of galvanic excitation during the period of their action on the body. Recasting all his experiments, he deduced from them the primary truth that the danger in anæsthesia does not lie in the production of sleep, nor even of deep sleep, but in the production, in the course of the process, of symptoms which, although the prime sources of danger, are not necessarily connected with anæsthesia. Another truth was, that we possess agents which by their action prove their power of producing anæsthesia without exciting dangerous symptoms which are not necessary. Hence he urged that men of science ought to exclude at once from the list of safe anæsthetics all such as produced more than sleep resembling as closely as possible natural sleep. Following the method of exclusion, the author next pointed out what agents did perform more than the necessary duties, and concluded this part by giving a theoretical formula for a perfectly safe anæsthetic agent, this especially for the guidance of practical organic chemists. Under the third head, the author described the action of the methyle ether combined with ethylic, of methylal, and of formiate of ethyl. Under the last head, the neutralization of some poisons by the ethyl and methyl substances. Dr. Richardson showed that iodide of methyl, iodide of ethyl, and nitrites of these bodies, possess the singular property of arresting the action of certain poisons, especially strychnia and nicotine. In some cases life might thus be sustained for two or three days, and in one case an animal had recovered. The great difficulty consisted in so apportioning the antidote as to neutralize the poison. A very intricate question was here raised, which the general reader would hardly be likely to appreciate, viz., whether the neutralizing action thus produced is chemical or physiological. Dr. Richardson's evident present inclination was to view the effect as physiological; and he proved that with regard to certain of the antidotes this was the case; but he held in reserve an opinion on the iodides and bromides.

#### SECTION E.—GEOGRAPHY AND ETHNOLOGY. MONDAY.

'On Explorations in Greenland,' by Mr. E. WHYMPER.—In this paper the author gave some of the principal results of a journey undertaken by him in the summer of 1867 to the Danish settlements of Northern Greenland, the object of which was to learn as much as possible of the interior of the land, and to examine the geology and natural history of the coasts. His researches were confined to the shores of Disco Bay and to the island of Disco, where he formed a large collection of fossil plants. He stated that our present knowledge of Greenland was derived entirely from foreign sources, no separate work on the country having ever been published in England. One of the most interesting subjects connected with Northern Greenland was the evidence worked out by Prof. Heer, from the fossil plants of Disco Island, of the existence of a warm climate in this latitude (69° N.) during the Miocene period. On the spot where now the largest shrubs have a maximum diameter of scarcely an inch, not only firs, birches and poplars grew, but oaks, beeches, walnuts, chestnuts and magnolia trees flourished and produced fruit and flowers. The coast was formed of a series of hills, beyond which, towards the interior, stretched an illimitable plateau of glacier ice, which worked

its way down the valleys of the coast to the sea; not a trace of vegetation, not a pebble or fragment of earth is seen on the uniform icy expanse. The aboriginal Greenlanders used bone and stone for tools, in the place of wood and iron; and as he had a great objection to use the property of the dead, the stone implements, with other goods, were placed in their graves, whence they have been disinterred in great abundance, and transferred to the museums of Denmark. The author was able, by diligent search and the offer of rewards, to collect a valuable series of these ancient tools. At Jacobshavn he found implements made of flint, chert, chalcedony, agate, jasper, rock-crystal, greenstone, hornblende and clay-slate; many of them excellently finished, and showing that the natives had attained high proficiency in this art. The most important animals found on the coast are the seals, of which there are five well-marked species. It is not uncommon for fifty or sixty thousand skins to be sold in one year to the traders, and probably the total number caught amounts to 100,000 per annum. The natives live almost exclusively on the flesh of the seal; and when the seal becomes extinct, as after the present rate of destruction it will eventually do, the extinction of the natives themselves will probably follow. After the seals the most important animals are the dogs; but these are rapidly lessening in numbers, owing to the ravages of disease. At Jacobshavn and the neighbourhood but few teams are left for sledge travelling; and the administration is engaged in stamping out the disease by killing all infected animals. The polar bear is not so common in Greenland as is generally supposed; practically, its appearance is limited to three or four districts, and fifty skins per annum is about the average obtained by traders from the whole country. The swimming powers of this animal are extraordinary. A bear has been killed many miles out of sight of land away from ice, which had been so long in the water that the hair had become green with slime. The bear is found near Cape Farewell, but not in districts on the west coast more to the north until beyond the 69th degree, where it re-appears. It is brought down on the ice by the current along the eastern coast. The narwhal is in great request with the Greenlanders for harpoon points, made from its horn: small horns are usually reserved for such uses, but, failing these, the natives do not hesitate to break the points from the larger ones. The narwhal has the power to renew the point of its horn after it is broken—a fact which the author had himself observed. Narwhal horn is not more valuable than other ivory; but a few years ago a fine horn would realize as much as 30*l*. It was said this unusual price was the result of the building of a new temple in China, for the adornment of which narwhal horns were considered indispensable. The elder ducks are still among the most common birds of the country, and can be seen in places by the thousand together; but they are slaughtered so perseveringly that in another century it is possible they will be classed among the rare ones. They congregate in such numbers that when they rise from the water the noise of their wings resembles that made by an iceberg falling to pieces. Formerly the down of the elder was not valued by the natives, and they accordingly took the eggs, but left the down in the nests. The advance of civilization, however, has taught them to rob the nest of both eggs and down, and to do so systematically. The elder duck, after laying its eggs, plucks the down from its own breast to line the nest. This is taken away by the robbers, and the miserable duck again plucks itself for the sake of its eggs. Again the down is taken, and a third time; the nests are then left alone, for fear the ducks would not return again to the nests. The population of Greenland amounts to about 10,000; of these 4,000 inhabit the northern and the rest the southern districts. The whole number is divided very equally between males and females. Rather more than one-half of the people are half-breeds. The height of the Greenlanders is rather below the average height of Europeans. They can be exceedingly ugly, but are frequently good looking. The complexion varies greatly. They are not long-lived. Out of the whole population but 11 per

cent. old is married; custom of a t round the E cases remov hair t unade has b is ne ones. about which mean the G young but th ester lande timidi that their woul is en grave of im idea c hesita which reluct lande displa even for gi perty aboul the s Gree great it ex Hon Dur coun tuniti valu deve bird, The e the e Si plant Mr. tion the I in co been land havi north Why that lecti Prof cold since day. Nor in p regio than found of a brow but prev ablin true facto rega the grov an plan whi coul refe



cent. are above forty-five years of age; sixty years old is considered a great age to arrive at. In their marriages and burials they have adopted Danish customs. They dress chiefly in seal-skin, consisting of a tunic in the shape of a blouse, fitting closely round the neck, and trousers differing little from the European style. The boots are formed of two cases: the exterior one of seal-skin, with the hair removed; the interior one of dog-skin, with the hair turned inside. European boots are entirely unadapted to Greenland; the surface of the land has been so worn and polished by glaciers, that it is nearly impossible to walk in other than native ones. Out of the 2,000 males in North Greenland, about one-third of the number can catch seals, which is done in the summer time exclusively, by means of the kayak. Nothing but necessity takes the Greenlanders out in his kayak. There are many young and middle-aged men who shirk doing it; but they do not seem to be despised or held in less esteem than those who do the work. The Greenlanders exhibit a strange mixture of boldness and timidity. In their canoes they will perform feats that would be trying to most Englishmen, but in their nervous fancies they show a weakness that would disgrace a child. An angry look, a gesture, is enough to terrify them or to fill them with the gravest apprehension. They are haunted by fears of imaginary wild beasts, and shudder at the very idea of their unknown ice-covered continent. They hesitate to venture out of sight of the district with which they are acquainted, and show the greatest reluctance to go alone with a stranger. The Greenlanders are not apt to express either pleasure or displeasure. It is rare to see an angry person, and even the sulky stage is seldom witnessed. Gratitude for gifts must not be expected. If you have property, it is considered right and proper that you should give. But this fact should be considered at the same time—namely, that all property with the Greenlanders is common. The Greenlanders have a great aversion to soap, and is never known to use it except to wash the bodies of persons deceased. Honesty is scarcely a virtue with him; it is a habit. During the whole of the author's stay in the country, although the natives had endless opportunities of robbing him, they did not take the value of a penny. Sporting tendencies are strongly developed in the Greenlanders; he never sees a bird, beast, or fish without endeavouring to kill it. The reindeer no longer exists in some districts, and the elder duck is fast decreasing.

Sir C. LYELL called attention to the fossil plants collected by Mr. Whymper in Greenland. Mr. Whymper had undertaken to make the collection at the instance of the British Association and the Royal Society, whose curiosity had been excited in consequence of the remarkable proofs that had been furnished, by plants previously found in Greenland and Spitzbergen, of a much higher temperature having existed in miocene times throughout the north polar region than at the present time. Mr. Whymper had faithfully and successfully executed that commission, and had brought home a rich collection of plants, which was now in the hands of Prof. Heer. There were, besides, proofs of a much colder climate than now exists having intervened since this ancient warmer period and the present day. This was during the glacial period, when Norfolk and Suffolk were visited by icebergs, covered in part by land ice, brought down from northern regions, where glaciers were much more extensive than they are now. The shells of this period now found fossil in Norfolk and Suffolk were decidedly of an Arctic character. Mr. Whymper had not brought home many new species of fossil plants, but he had brought home fruits of species of which previously only the leaves were known, thus enabling Prof. Heer to confirm his guesses as to the true character of the plants. Important and satisfactory conclusions had thus been arrived at with regard to several of the fossil species; for example, the magnolia, which can now be affirmed to have grown there in miocene times. The existence of an oak with leaves six inches long, of the vine, plane and other trees indicating great heat in summer, while the number of dicotyledons showed that there could have been no great cold in winter. With reference to the causes of these great changes of

climate, he adhered still to the opinion that the principal cause was the altered distribution of land and sea, and the consequent alteration in the direction of the marine currents between the equatorial and the polar regions.

Prof. ROLLESTON said that an examination which he had made of sixteen skulls brought home by Mr. Whymper proved that the Greenlanders belonged to the Esquimaux race, and had no affinity with the Norsemen. They were the skulls of a savage people, and remarkable for the tendency to obliteration of the sutures, as in the skulls of carnivorous animals. The form showed that there was no ethnological connexion between the Greenlanders and the Red Indian.

'Notes on the Seychelles Islands,' by Prof. E. P. WRIGHT, M.D.—The Seychelles group lie in the Indian Ocean about 950 miles from Mauritius and about 340 from Madagascar, which may be considered the nearest land; they are thirty in number, and from their productions, which the author went out last year to investigate, possess a great deal of interest. The group was probably discovered by Vasco de Gama as early as 1502. Capt. Picault in 1742 landed on the largest island and took possession of the whole group in the name of France. Their present name was given subsequently in honour of a French official, the Viscount Hérault de Seychelles. At the time of the French Revolution, and at different periods after it, the French made use of the islands for transporting to them political offenders; and thus members of the noblest and best families of France found themselves left on their shores, with the grant of the land and little else to depend upon. The prisoners appear to have been always those convicted of political offences. In course of time many of them were married to black slaves imported from Mozambique; and it may be said that French gentlemen with their black consorts laid the foundation of the present population of these islands. Under the governorship of the Chevalier de Quincey in 1794 the Seychelles were surrendered to the English Commodore Newcome, under threat of bombardment of the chief town. At present the islands are in charge of a Civil Commissioner, dependent on the government of Mauritius. The largest of the group is Mahé, about 18 miles long and 7 miles broad; the second in size is Praslin, about two-thirds the area of Mahé. The chief town is Port Victoria, situated in a beautiful bay, land-locked, but with two entrances quite safe, not only for the large steamers of the *Messageries Impériales*, but for some of the largest ships of war which have formed part of the slave-trade squadrons in those seas. Although lying out of the reach of the hurricanes that devastate the southern shores of India and Mauritius, the islands were once visited by a most destructive typhoon. It rained for five consecutive days; at the end of the fourth day a great storm arose, and a landslip, 300 feet in width, rushed down a precipitous slope, hurling down everything on its surface. Blocks of granite fifty and sixty tons in weight rolled down in the vast avalanche, destroying almost the whole town of Victoria. The town was restored under the superintendence of the present Commissioner, Mr. Swinburne Ward, and has now a very handsome appearance. The houses are nearly all built of coral and roofed with wood. At the last census the population of the whole group numbered about 7,500. The temperature during the cold season averages 83° Fahrenheit during the day and 75° at night. The climate is excellent, and the heat scarcely ever disagreeable. The only serious disease is leprosy; one of the smaller islands is, perhaps, the only station under the British Crown that has a leprosy establishment. This island, called *Curieuse*, is the home and centre of one of the most remarkable vegetable productions of the world, namely, the lofty palm-tree, which produces the double cocoa-nut. The language spoken in the Seychelles is French, but very curiously corrupted among the lower classes of the population. There would appear to be no grammar, no tenses to the verbs and no declensions to the pronouns. There is no phrase more common than "*moi ne cont pas*," for *I do not know*. Many words are lengthened by the intercalation of vowels: thus, "*glisser*" for *glissier*,

"*belourse*" for *blouse*, &c. To trace the process of this remarkable deterioration would be a curious philological study, for we know that the language was three generations ago spoken in perfect purity by the original French settlers. The highest mountain in Mahé rises to a height of from 3,500 to 4,000 feet. With the exception of a few porphyritic veins, the islands may be said to consist of nothing but the remains of a large chain of granitic mountains, which are clothed up to the summit with tropical vegetation. The coral reefs lie generally at some distance from the shore. It is evident that the land is gradually subsiding. Looking at the land from the sea, there are two well-marked zones of vegetation encircling the slopes. The lower one consists of an enormous assemblage of tropical plants, including dense groves of cocoa-nut palm, which form the wealth of the islanders, 24,000*l.* worth of the oil having been exported in 1866. Manihot, rice, cinnamon, banana, the bread-fruit tree, and pine-apple are cultivated in the lower zone. The birds of the Seychelles have been recently collected by Mr. Edward Newton, and found to offer several peculiar species. Magnificent displays of phosphorescent light are observed at times by night in the sea off the harbour of Victoria. On one occasion, when the author was out in a boat, two white clouds of light were seen coming along the surface of the water; the boatmen were alarmed at the extraordinary appearance, and on dashing into the midst the clouds broke up into a number of large white sheets of light: the phenomenon was caused by a species of mullet of gregarious habits; countless thousands were seen, each fish gleaming with phosphorescence on its scales.

'Report of the Committee on Overland Communication between India and China,' by Dr. T. THOMSON.—The Report stated that the road connecting the Chinese province of Yunnan with Ava, through Bhamo, was pretty well known, and was understood to be now undergoing further investigation from the direction of Ava. This route, however, was too circuitous to suffice for the wants of Assam, for which province the discovery of a more direct route was most important, and there was reason to believe that, though difficult, the exploration of such a route was far from impossible. In many countries such an undertaking might be left to private enterprise, but there were strong reasons why the task in British India should be taken in hand by the Government, which alone had the power of influencing the savage tributary tribes by which Assam is surrounded. The river Brahmaputra is navigable considerably beyond the town of Sudiya, and the Yang-tse-Kiang believed to be navigable as far as Li-Kiang. Now, the distance between these places, lying opposite to each other east and west, was less than 250 miles; and, although the intervening country was very mountainous, it was known to be passable in summer. Further south, there is a well-known route, travelled long ago by Wilcox, from Upper Assam to the upper valley of the Irawaddy, which presents no serious obstacle to commerce, and lies on the direct line between the Brahmaputra and the Yang-tse; the unknown part of the route was thus reduced to 155 miles. The exploration of this unknown country was considered essential by the Committee. The importance of a thorough investigation of our own and the Burmese provinces could not be exaggerated. It was only after accurate mapping of the country and the exact determination of the height and steepness of the mountain-chains that the best route could be chosen. The gain to geographical and natural science would of itself repay the cost. There was, further, much reason to hope that the gain to our commercial interests would be great; and should this not be the case, the urgency of the demand for this exploration by those interests was a good reason for setting the question at rest one way or the other.

'On Sepulchral Remains in Southern India,' by Sir W. ELLIOT.

'On the Formation of Fiords, Cañons, Benches, Prairies, and Intermittent Rivers,' by Mr. R. BROWN.—With regard to fiords or deep narrow inlets in hilly sea-coasts, the author pointed out that they existed only in high latitudes. They varied in length from two or three miles

to one hundred or more, and were known by the different names of inlets, canals, fiords and lochs. Their nature was everywhere similar, so much so as to suggest a common origin. The author had investigated them on the north-west coast of North America; the soundings in them showed a great depth of water, high precipitous cliffs hemmed them in on both sides, and at their head a valley generally existed. They existed on the western side of Vancouver's Island, but not on the eastern, showing that the island once formed part of what is now British Columbia, its western coast being then the shore of the continent. Jervis Inlet might be taken as the type of these inlets; it is forty miles in length, while its width rarely exceeds one mile and a half; the depths below almost rival the heights of the precipitous sides; bottom is rarely reached under 200 fathoms, even close to the shore. The author concluded that glaciers were the agency by which these deep inlets were scooped out, in all parts of the world where they are now seen. Everywhere in British Columbia marks of ice-action are seen on the sides of the fiords. Not far from the heads of most of them glaciers are now found in the Coast Range and Cascade Mountains, and marks of old glacier-action can be seen 2,000 to 3,000 feet below the summit, and even near the sea margin. Cañons, or the deep ravines through which many rivers of Western America for many miles pursue their course, the author attributed to erosion by the fluvial currents, the action of which was stronger during the period when glaciers filled the northern fiords and when the atmospheric precipitation would be much greater over the whole region than it is now. Benches, or terrace-like formations on the sides of narrow river valleys, far above the present level of the rivers, were due to sudden sinkings of the level of the rivers, on the wearing or breaking down of rocky barriers which impeded their course, thus leaving the traces of their old beds in the form of "benches." The existence of Prairies, or treeless plains, in the interior of North America was attributed by the author to the same cause as the formation of steppes and deserts in other parts of the world, namely, the deficiency in the rainfall in the interior of continents. Under the head of "intermittent rivers" the author enumerated the streams of this nature that he had observed on the eastern side of the Cascade Mountains in Oregon and Washington Territory, and explained them by the general aridity caused by the interception of the rain supply from the Pacific by the Cascade Range, by the sudden melting of the snows on the Rocky Mountains, where the rivers mostly take their rise, and by the cavernous, volcanic nature of the surface.

#### SECTION F.—ECONOMIC SCIENCE AND STATISTICS. MONDAY.

'Report of the Committee of Uniformity of Monies, Weights and Measures.'

'On the Present State of the Question of International Coinage,' by Prof. LEONE LEVI.—Having shown the practical character of the question at issue, and the importance attached to it by the juries of international exhibitions, the statistical congresses, the chambers of commerce, the Society of Arts and other public bodies, he examined the respective advantages of either adopting a new unit altogether for all nations, or one of the existing units by all of them, or a correlation of all the different units. The first plan, of adopting five or ten grains of gold as a new unit, would be impracticable, because it would require a general recoinage by all nations. The second plan, that of choosing one from the existing units, was better, and the choice would depend on the number of persons among whom the same unit is already in circulation, the amount of trade which is regulated by such unit, the amount of coinage of the same already issued, and the relative convenience of the different systems. As regards the population, the pound issued by England has 30,000,000; the franc of France, Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, has 70,000,000; the dollar by the United States has 31,000,000; the florin by Austria has 37,000,000; the thaler by Germany and Prussia has 54,000,000; and the rouble by European Russia having

59,000,000. The franc, therefore, prevails among the largest number of persons. As regards trade, whilst the imports and exports of England amount to 500,000,000*l.*, those of France, Italy, Belgium and Switzerland amount to 480,000,000*l.*, and those of the United States 105,000,000*l.* England here has the pre-eminence, though not so decided as one might imagine. And as regarded the amount of coinage issued, whilst up to 1850 the issue of gold coin in England far exceeded that of France and the United States, it has not been so since that time. From 1793 to 1866 France issued 262,500,000*l.* of gold coins; the United Kingdom, from 1816 to 1866, 187,000,000*l.*; the United States, from 1792 to 1849, 109,000,000*l.* Since 1850, France, 197,000,000*l.*; the United Kingdom, 91,000,000*l.*; the United States, 152,000,000*l.* As regards the relative convenience of the different systems, it was a fact that, whilst this country has been for years labouring to establish a decimal coinage, France and the United States long possessed it; whilst, moreover, for international purposes, the pound was too large a unit. In three, therefore, out of the four elements, France has the advantage, and that induced the Congress to take the French coin as a basis. But the Congress did not recommend the franc as a unit for all nations, nor did it recommend the pound. As a step in advance, it recommended a mode of harmonizing the different systems in existence, according to which we should alter the pound to twenty-five francs exactly, instead of twenty-five francs, twenty cents, as it is now intrinsically worth. Can this be done? Should this compromise be accepted, the evil was, that it would cause a great change in all the monetary systems. It would require us to lower, though in an infinitesimal manner, the gold standard, and yet leave all the existing units in existence. The accounts would still be kept in different ways; the divisional coins would in nowise agree, and we should not get a good decimal coinage. The learned Professor thought the ten-franc piece in gold of the value of 100 pence (slightly diminished in their present relative value), with a unit of 100 francs or 4*l.* for larger financial operations, the best unit offered for all nations. Such a unit, divided into ten silver pieces of 10*d.* each, would give also an excellent decimal coinage, producing immense facilities in education and great ease in calculations; then we would have one unit identically alike everywhere, instead of the hundred units now in existence, and the identity would be obtained, not only in the gold unit, but in its subordinate coins of silver and copper. Allowing that the International Monetary Congress had immensely advanced the question, he trusted that the Report of the Royal Commissioners would recommend the holding of another conference for the purpose of considering the possibility of agreeing in one common system of coinage, instead of the proposed adaptation of many systems.

A paper was to have been read, by Mr. G. J. STONEY, 'On the Natural System of Coinage,' but its purport was briefly stated by Prof. Leone Levi to be a similar recommendation to that of M. Michel Chevalier, that there should be one unit founded upon a certain weight, a gramme of gold being suggested.

'On the Recent Improvements in Norfolk Farming,' by Mr. C. S. READ.

'Statistics of the Progress and Extirmination of the Cattle Plague in Norfolk,' by Mr. W. SMITH.

A recommendation forwarded to the Section was read by the PRESIDENT, to the effect that impartial reports should be made and communicated to the British Association, on the treatment and utilization of sewage in connexion with the drainage of towns, in order that such facts and information as may guide future operations may be recorded from time to time. It was, therefore, proposed that some member of the Committee out of the three following Sections should be appointed a Committee to draw up the reports:—Section B, Mr. J. H. Gilbert; Section F, Mr. W. D. Harding; Section G, Mr. R. B. Grantham; with power to add to their number; and that a sum of 30*l.* be granted for the payment of such expenses as are incurred in the course of the investigations. The Committee should be requested to include in

the details of each report: 1. The special circumstances of each case, such as the extent of district, the population, and the number of houses with or without the benefit of drainage. 2. The character of the sewage and water-supply adopted in the district; and the quantity of sewage at disposal. 3. The mode of disposing of the sewage, with descriptions of the works, and their cost. 4. The results pecuniarily to the district, and to those who are selling or applying the sewage to the land or otherwise in any form whatever. The recommendation was adopted.

Mr. J. G. FITCH, one of the assistant commissioners of the late Schools Inquiry Commission, read a paper 'On Educational Endowments.'—The commission had been presided over by Lord Tannan, and had presented an elaborate report within the last year. It had not been instructed to inquire into those endowments which were designed to promote elementary education; nor into those of the nine great foundation schools, including Eton, Harrow and Winchester. Its work had extended over the whole of the vast field of investigation lying between these two extremes; and within this area it had found no less than 820 endowed foundations which had been intended to give, or which were now actually giving secondary or higher education. The gross annual revenue of the charities to which these schools belong is 336,201*l.* But of this sum a part is appropriated to the maintenance of almshouses or other eleemosynary objects, and the net income, after all deductions are made for management, amounts to 195,184*l.* for the maintenance of the schools, besides 14,264*l.* in the form of exhibitions, generally intended for the use of such pupils as proceed to the universities. These sums, however, represent very inadequately the resources of the foundation schools, for besides these, there is, in nearly every case, a freehold school-room, besides grounds and a dwelling-house or houses for the master and for the reception of boarders. All this is, of course, additional to any fees which may be charged to parents; and may be considered as a provision either for enabling scholars to obtain superior education without payment; or at least for cheapening education for those who could only afford to pay a portion of its market price. The amount of endowment varies considerably. The richest foundation in the kingdom is Christ's Hospital, with a net income of 42,000*l.*, while a few are endowed with nothing more than a small tenement which serves as a school-house, and a rent-charge of 5*l.* or 10*l.* per annum. There are nine foundations with incomes exceeding 2,000*l.*, thirteen others with upwards of 1,000*l.*, fifty-five with less than 1,000*l.* and more than 500*l.*; 222 with less than 500*l.* but more than 100*l.*, while the remainder are endowed with less than 100*l.* per annum each. Similar inequalities appear in the local distribution of the schools, although the modern facilities of communication render this a minor evil,—one which scarcely calls for a remedy, except so far as day schools are concerned. Yet the Commissioners report that in the London district the net sum arising from grammar school endowments is 56,000*l.*; in Yorkshire, upwards of 18,000*l.*; in Lancashire, 9,000*l.*; Lincolnshire, 7,000*l.*; while Cornwall, which stands lowest on the list of counties, has no more than 400*l.*, and buildings of very little value. But the most serious revelations of the Commissioners relate to the educational condition of the schools. On this point the evidence is very copious, occupying nearly twenty volumes, and it is almost impossible to summarize it. But the total number of boys professing to belong to these 820 schools is 9,279 warders, and 27,595 day scholars,—a number wholly inadequate when the capacity of the school-rooms, and the resources of the trustees are considered, and of this number very few are receiving the classical education contemplated by the founders, while the general instruction in other subjects is, as a rule, of very inferior quality. Indeed, the very existence of the statutes prescribing the ancient learning, often serves as an excuse for withholding any modern addition to it. It had been his own duty as Assistant Commissioner to visit about 120 schools, and to report thereon to the Commission. Of these there were perhaps twenty

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SECTION G.—MECHANICAL SCIENCE.  
MONDAY.

'On Some Points affecting the Economical Manufacture of Iron,' by Mr. J. JONES.—The author estimated the production of pig-iron in Great Britain at 4,500,000 tons per annum, and the make of finished iron at about 3,000,000 tons. He adduced these statistics to show the immense issues involved in the improvements he wished to notice. He then referred to the economical application of fuel in the iron-manufacture, more particularly in the finished-iron processes, and remarked that the newer blast-furnace plant left little to be accomplished in the economical use of fuel, except in utilizing the waste products given off in coking the fuel. In puddling, however, great waste of fuel went on, and two modifications of the ordinary puddling-furnace were to be noticed as calculated to save from 20 to 25 per cent. of fuel and to consume all the smoke usually produced. The Wilson furnace, in its most recently improved form, consisted of a sloping chamber, into which the fuel was fed at the top; and the volatile matters generally forming smoke were reduced by passing over the incandescent mass of fuel further along the chamber. The air for combustion was delivered into the furnace in a heated condition, and a steam-jet was delivered underneath the grate, by means of which the formation of clinkers was avoided. The Newport furnace, Middlesbrough, had a chamber constructed in the ordinary chimney-stack; and in this were placed a couple of cast-iron pipes, with a partition reaching nearly to the top. These pipes were heated by the waste gases from the puddling-furnace, and through them the air required for combustion was forced by means of a steam-jet, and was thus delivered in front of the grate in a highly-heated condition. These furnaces, of which a considerable number were in operation at the Newport works, effected a saving of at least 25 per cent. in fuel. The structural modifications would involve comparatively little outlay, and the saving to be effected would recoup that outlay in a single year. The economy represented by applying the new plans to the whole iron-trade would amount to about 1,500,000 tons of coal per annum. The author next proceeded to describe the manufacture of iron by what is termed the Radcliffe process, which had been for some time in operation at the Consett Ironworks, Newcastle. The puddled iron, which was usually rolled into rough bars, straightened and weighed, allowed to get cool, then cut up, piled, heated, rolled into blooms, re-heated, and, finally, rolled into finished iron, after a complicated series of operations, was, by the new method, finished off by a continuous and simple process. Five or more puddled balls were put together into a large bloom, under a very heavy steam-hammer, shingled down into a bloom, passed for a short time through a heating furnace, and rolled off into finished iron, not more than half an hour after the iron left the puddling-furnace. Specimens of iron made by the process were exhibited. A great saving in the cost of manufacture was represented by this process in all departments of the manufacture of finished iron; and it was calculated that a saving of 1,500,000 tons of coal alone would result from the general application of this system. Particular stress was laid upon the fact that, in carrying out this process, no extensive or expensive alteration of existing works was required, and a saving of from  $\frac{3}{4}$  to 4 cwt. of puddled iron would be secured upon each ton of finished rails or plates now turned out, the cost of making malleable iron being reduced to a very considerable extent. The importance of the whole question, in a national point of view, was also dwelt upon.

The 'Interim Report of the Committee on the Safety of Merchant Ships and their Passengers,' was read by Admiral Sir E. BELCHER.—The Committee stated that as far as they had been able to pursue their inquiry, it appeared that no legal regulations were in force in Great Britain affecting the loading of merchant ships; but there were regulations in force by the Board of Trade relating simply to vessels carrying passengers or emigrants, and these only related to space as bearing on the sanitary condition of such passengers, totally

ignoring their safety as far as the stowage of cargo and deck-loads were concerned—the matter on which the Committee had to report. In order to carry out effectively any regulations, some precise agreement should be entered into with all the great maritime powers, and the deep draught of every vessel should be distinctly indicated by a fixed and clearly-defined mark, such as a painted white ribbon extending about six feet on each side of the stem as well as stern-post (not in mid-ship), and so distinctly scribed in wooden, and cut into iron ships, that it could not be tampered with. When a ship was so loaded by the stern an average should not be taken, but when so loaded the load-line at that point should not be immersed. The load-line should be fixed by a government inspector. The great loss of steamers sailing from Hull had been occasioned by overloading and the shipping of successive heavy seas, the extra weight of which had caused the foundering of the vessels. Deck-loads might be carried during summer if well secured, and boats when stowed should be some height from the deck, so that the water shipped should have a clear passage. The lashings of the boats ought to be of rope, so that they could be readily cut in an emergency. Crews should be practised in the lowering of boats. The regulations thus indicated ought to apply to foreign vessels entering or leaving British ports. The Committee propose to make a more detailed Report if re-appointed.

'Auxiliary Railway for Turnpike-Roads and Highways passing through Towns,' by Mr. W. THOROLD.—The author stated that he only required a single line of rails, which he proposed should be laid on one side of the road, out of the way of the ordinary traffic. By an arrangement of grooved wheels under the centre of the engine and carriages, so constructed that they will be capable of maintaining their grip upon curves of 20 feet radius, thereby giving the vehicles the power of turning corners with the greatest facility, the inventor thinks his principle peculiarly adapted to locomotion through new countries, and for passing through ravines, or up and down the sides of mountains, up any gradient not exceeding 1 in 12. He proposed to propel the carriages by steam traction engines, although they might also be drawn by horses or other beasts of burden. The adhesion of the traction-wheels could be regulated to any weight, and by the application of a special apparatus the engine might be made to lift the traction-wheels out of a soft place. The cost of the new railway he estimated at about 500l. per mile.

'On London Street Tramways,' by Mr. H. BRIGHT.—The author said the London omnibuses were notoriously mismanaged; and when it was remembered that there were six hundred of these vehicles in London, each capable of carrying, on an average, twenty-three passengers, the question became an important one. There could be little doubt that a judicious system of street tramways, or horse railways, would supply a great and rapidly growing demand, which could not be met by steam locomotion on the ordinary railway, where the trains could not work like omnibuses, taking up passengers at every moment when required, but must run through from station to station. Street tramways had proved a success wherever they had been judiciously tried, and would doubtless yield an enormous profit if laid down in London and other large towns. They were extensively used in America and Canada, and had been adopted at Copenhagen and the suburbs of Paris; while it was proposed to apply them to Berlin, Brussels and Vienna. The objection which might be urged against the interference of tramways with the ordinary traffic would be met by taking the many good and available lines afforded by back streets, taking care to bring the line at certain points into close proximity to the main traffic. The system he proposed to adopt was somewhat similar to that which was at present in use in Manchester and Geneva, the vehicle being kept on the track by means of a wheel, which the driver could at pleasure drop into or lift up from a grooved rail in the centre of the track. The formation of the lines for the carriage-wheels was peculiar, there being a slope with a depression of only one inch for each wheel, which would be so made as to fit the wheel-ways, while the depres-

sion will be so slight that it could not obstruct the progress of any ordinary vehicle. The vehicle would be enabled to turn the sharpest curves, and would carry forty-eight passengers, exclusive of the driver and conductor. It was proposed, by an efficient system of breaks, with a carefully-devised scheme of compensation for the horses, to enable the driver to stop the vehicle at any moment.

Mr. W. J. COOPER propounded 'An Improved System of Watering Streets and Roadways,' his suggestion being that a quantity of deliquescent chlorides of calcium and sodium should be mixed with the water in order to counteract its rapid evaporation.

A paper, by Prof. ARCHER, descriptive of 'Thompson's Patent Road Steamer,' was then read.

'On the Unsatisfactory Character of Coroners' Inquests consequent on Steam-Boiler Explosions,' by Mr. L. E. FLETCHER.—It appears that since the commencement of 1835 up to the 31st of May last, there occurred in different parts of the kingdom as many as 464 explosions, by which 789 persons were killed and 924 injured; and these are not all, as in the earlier years the records are not complete. It may be stated, in round numbers, that about fifty steam-boiler explosions occur on an average every year, resulting in the loss of seventy lives. In the author's opinion, derived from a very extended experience, whatever may be the precise circumstances of each case, the cause of every one may be given in one word, viz. *neglect*, while the simple preventive is *care*. The author proceeded to say, let every coroner be empowered and instructed, when holding an inquiry on a boiler explosion, to call in two competent and perfectly independent scientific engineers to investigate the cause of the explosion, and report to the jury thereon. These engineers to visit the scene of the explosion, and examine the fragments of the boiler, to attend the inquest, hear the evidence given by parties concerned in the charge of the boiler, and aid the coroner in conducting the inquiry; while, in addition, they should report to him, either jointly or severally, on the cause of the explosion, and accompany their report with suitable sealed drawings of the exploded boiler, showing its original construction and the lines of fracture as well as the flight of the parts, as far as they can be ascertained. The inquest to be open to the public, under the control of the coroner, and also to the press, both scientific and general, so that the entire proceedings may have as wide a circulation as possible. A full account of the inquiry, including the engineers' reports, accompanied with the sealed drawings, to be printed and deposited at the Patent Office, and to be accessible to both the purchase and inspection of the public, as is at present the case with the specification of patents. Also a report of each inquiry to be sent to the members of both Houses of Parliament as issued. Such a course, he thought, would stimulate coroners to make searching and full investigations; and if at the outset incompetent engineers were selected by the coroner, the publicity given to their proceedings, as recommended above, would bring them under the criticism of the press and general engineering public, which it is thought might be relied on as a corrective. If full investigations were brought to bear upon boiler explosions, and those steam users who produce them by working old worn-out boilers were fairly brought to the bar of public opinion, and compelled, when necessary, to compensate the widow and orphan for the results of their negligence, the mystery of boiler explosions would soon be dispelled, and their occurrence put a stop to. He considered this plan superior to any government inspection, which led to the fettering of trade and destroyed responsibility.

'On Dynamite, a recent Preparation of Nitro-glycerine, as a Blasting Agent,' by Mr. A. NOBEL.—The author stated that by mixing nitro-glycerine and powdered silica in the proportions of 75 per cent. of the former to 25 per cent. of the latter, a substance was obtained which, while it retained all the valuable properties of nitro-glycerine for blasting, was no longer dangerous, inasmuch as it could be handled freely, and did not explode by fire alone, or when accidentally subjected to percussion. He instanced experiments lately made at Glasgow and

Merstham. A box containing about 8 lb. of dynamite (equal in power to 80 lb. of gunpowder) was placed over a fire, where it slowly burned away; and another box, with the same quantity, was hurled from a height of more than 60 feet on the rock below, no explosion ensuing from the concussion sustained. It appeared that the explosion when required was produced by means of a percussion-cap, which acted both by percussion and by fire, the combination of the two producing the effect, whilst neither alone was effective. The value of the material as a blasting agent appeared to be very great; and if it be as safe as the author believes, it cannot fail to be of great assistance both to the engineer and the miner.

#### SOCIETIES.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL.—Sept. 2.—*Special General Meeting*.—Dr. James Hunt, President, in the chair.

—The meeting was convened by circular, "for the purpose of considering and determining upon a resolution, carried unanimously by the Council, recommending the expulsion from the Society of Mr. Hyde Clarke, for conduct calculated to injure the Society."—Dr. Duncan proposed the following resolution—"That a Committee of five Fellows of the Society, who are neither members of the Council nor friends of Mr. Hyde Clarke, be nominated, that shall report to a Special General Meeting of the Society upon the general and financial condition of the Society."—The President ruled that the resolution proposed was irregular, and could not be put to the meeting.—The question was then put to the meeting, "That the Report from the Council be now read," and was carried by 28 to 6.—The same was accordingly read.—After a long and stormy discussion, Mr. Hyde Clarke was called upon for his reply to the statement made on behalf of the Council.—On his refusing to make any reply, the Chairman declared the ballot open on the question of his expulsion, and appointed the Rev. Dr. Kernahan and Mr. T. Bendyshe scrutineers. While the ballot was being taken, the question was put to the meeting, "That a vote be now taken on Dr. Duncan's resolution," and was carried in the affirmative.—Dr. Duncan's resolution was thereupon put, and carried by 22 to 13.—The scrutineers reported the result of the ballot as follows: for the expulsion of Mr. Hyde Clarke, 26; against, 16. This not being the majority of three-fourths required by the regulations, Mr. Hyde Clarke was declared not to have been expelled.

MEETING FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.  
TUES. Horticultural, 3.—General Meeting.

#### FINE ARTS

##### FINE-ART GOSSIP.

THE statue of the Hero of Culloden, for so many years almost unobserved in Cavendish Square, has been rapidly decaying in the acid and acid-laden air of London; it is to be taken down, moulded, and recast.

We are sorry to observe that after the opening of the supposed tomb of William Rufus in Winchester Cathedral some of the objects which it contained were not replaced. These are of no considerable value, either historically or artistically,—consequently there is the less powerful excuse for their removal. As the bones which were found in the coffin were, as reported, injured at their ends, it is by no means certain that the old tale of their having been ill-used is not true,—when and by whom are other questions.

A Correspondent inquires our opinion about the alleged recent discoveries of the history and origin of the well-known stained-glass windows in Fairford Church, Gloucestershire. In reply, it may be enough to state that nothing appears to have resulted from the controversy; a wilderness of bold surmises and assertions has been troublesome to experts, because the entanglement must needs be set right before the eyes of those who are liable to be carried away by enthusiasts, who are even more apt to deceive themselves than to mislead others. Students were thoroughly conversant with the nature and characteristics of these windows before

they were popularized by Mr. Holt, whose efforts are likely to be profitable to Art by drawing attention to the true nature of what is called the "restoration" of stained glass.

The Church of St. Helen, Bishopsgate, has just received a new stained-glass window, by way of memorial to the late Alderman Copeland. It is the tenth addition of the kind which has been made to the church since its recent restoration, and, being in the western opening, surpasses those which preceded it in importance and cost. Ten stained-glass windows in a church such as St. Helen's, which, although large, is but a fragment of a great conventual structure, must have the effect of darkening an interior that needs light more than a complete and scientifically illuminated edifice would do. As most memorials of this sort appear in the openings of aisles where they are within reach of the eye and their inscriptions readable, the effect of these introductions in considerable numbers to City churches is less injurious than would be the case if the clerestories were likewise filled with deeply-toned glass: it happens thus because a comparatively small amount of light enters at openings which face other buildings, and, consequently, the clerestories are more effective than the side windows. Yet the obstruction is considerable, and its result to those who sit near the gorgeous panes by no means comfortable. In the interests of these, and for Art's sake, we call the attention of churchwardens and would-be memorialists to the fact that, in many churches, the introduction of stained glass is excessive and extremely inconvenient. This remark applies particularly to such windows as are coloured throughout, and contain complete series of paintings, with no large proportion of grisaille of a sufficiently transparent sort to admit light abundantly. Grisaille in this respect differs as it is made by able or incompetent persons; the best tinted modern silvery-hued grisaille known to us is that of Messrs. Morris, Marshall & Co. in the refreshment-room at the South Kensington Museum. It is needless to indicate bad examples. Some of the finest of our ancient models in staining glass, such as the works at Sens, Bourges, and in the north aisle at Canterbury, are composed in the manner here referred to, i.e. of paintings in roundels, squares or lozenges, inserted in large spaces of grey glass. This grey glass, or grisaille, need not, if its tones are clear, stop the entrance of light in any considerable degree, and, if it is artistically designed, it will enrich a church with hues of extreme purity and wealthiness. Good grisaille is never cold in its tints or equally toned all over, but resembles with transparency the fine colouring which appears on slightly "tarnished" silver, whereof the tones are broken and the tints harmonious. As to Art, this matter has another aspect which is to be considered with regard to the effect of many stained-glass windows in a church where gorgeous hues are spread entirely over the openings without the mitigating effect and repose of large surfaces of grisaille. Churches so extravagantly embellished recall those imitative structures of plaster-of-paris which, as boys, we bought for sixpence each, and into which we placed burning candle-ends, and gained pleasure by means of the red, blue and green windows which were thus illuminated. Generally, the artistic effect of stained glass is to be obtained only when some prominent window, say that to the east or the west, receives all the glory of the art, and the smaller openings are by means of grisaille subordinated to it in hues and treatment. The gaudiness of many churches is painful to educated eyes.

A monument to Alexander the Third, of Scotland, is to be erected on the King's Rock, Burntisland, Fifehire.

A statue of Napoleon the First has been erected at Grenoble.

The portraits in Gobelin's tapestry, which during the last few years have decorated the Apollo Gallery of the Louvre, and which represent the artists and sovereigns who have contributed to the palace, having been found to be greatly injured by moth, have been sent to the factory from which they came in order that they may be restored, so far as it is possible to effect that purpose.

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## MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

'LOHENGRIN' IN BADEN.—High comedy, interpreted by Regnier, Pressant and Madame Brohan, among others, has given place at Baden-Baden to opera. The musical season opened on Saturday last with Wagner's 'Lohengrin.' Great pains had been taken with the rehearsals, and it was anticipated that the performance would be memorable. Madame Mallinger, who has acquired great celebrity in Wagner's operas, was engaged to play *Elsa*, Herr Niemann was announced for the *Titelrolle*, and Herr Betz was to appear as Lohengrin's rival, *Telramund*. The first and last kept their engagements, but the tenor made no sign. It was well that so able a substitute as Herr Nachbaur was at hand. A young man, with a fresh and brilliant voice, a good *physique* and much dramatic force, should make his way. Herr Nachbaur is as stiff, angular and mechanical as the majority of his singing countrymen; but he has in him the making of a first-rate lyric actor. Madame Mallinger is also an essentially German singer, having all the merits and all the faults that characterize her nation. She has a sufficiently powerful and decidedly expressive voice, and she is a thorough mistress of her art, both in a musical and dramatic sense. But she is woefully artificial. There is nothing in her performance, from the first scene to the last, which ever raises a sympathetic emotion in the spectator's mind. We feel that every gesture has been elaborately studied beforehand, and this painful amount of artifice the singer's art is inadequate to conceal. Herr Betz proved himself to be the most capable and completely artistic of all the principal singers; but Madame Bertram-Mayer and Herr Fricke—the latter familiar to us under the Italianized name of Signor Fricca—were also efficient representatives of the ungrateful parts of the wicked bride of *Telramund* and the commonplace *King*. The orchestra was far too weak for such music as that of Herr Wagner, who makes a distressingly lavish use of his wind instruments, and the chorus was very untrained and coarse. The opera was as well put on the boards as it could be on such a small stage as that of Baden, and everything practicable was done to make Herr Wagner's opera a success. The managers of the three lyric theatres of Paris were present, and many connoisseurs of various nationalities had travelled far to hear the music of the future. And was the game worth the candle? To this question, we, at least, should unhesitatingly answer, No. To us, 'Lohengrin' seemed to be the very sublimity of impudence. Of music, in the only sense in which we can understand the term, there is next to none in the entire opera. There is a wedding chorus, it is true, which is unspeakably grateful to ears worried and irritated by three hours of ugly and discordant recitative. But if such a trivial melody had been written by Adolphe Adam, it would not have suggested a word of comment. There is also a highly effective *morceau d'ensemble* in the first act, and in this instance it would seem that the strong dramatic feeling of the composer had stimulated his sluggish musical faculty to unusual activity. But the hearing of 'Lohengrin' has deepened in us the conviction that if Wagner despises melody, it is because he cannot invent it. He is always earnest and dramatic, but never musical. Anything more hideous than the greater part of the opera has never maddened a lunatic's dreams; so that the broken shreds of melody that occasionally fall are prized as dearly as the faint streaks of light that now and then pierce through the crevices of a captive's cell. Unless ugliness should in some wild day come to be mistaken for beauty, Herr Wagner's will never be the music of the future.

On Friday afternoon, a far more interesting musical ceremonial took place than the production of 'Lohengrin.' All the military bands of Baden, numbering some 310 musicians, played, sometimes in amicable rivalry and sometimes in harmonious concert, in the open space opposite the Kursaal. The performance was, on the whole, remarkably satisfactory. The brass instruments were played with a delicacy unusual to English ears, while the volume of tone elicited may be suggested by the bare statement of the fact that the melodies could be per-

fectly well distinguished at the Alte Schloss, distant an hour's drive from the Kursaal.

HOLBORN.—A noteworthy fact with regard to the drama is the constancy with which one decided character pervades the entire dramatic literature of an epoch. In Greek tragedy, though separate plays have a higher or lower degree of power and poetry, there is yet a general and most marked uniformity of character in all. In the time of Queen Elizabeth a like resemblance may be traced. Almost every writer of that epoch is, so to speak, a "lesser Shakespeare." Nature, indeed, works in some such fashion as these coincidences indicate. She seldom places a solitary hill in the centre of a plain, but throws her Alps broadcast over a district, or extends her champaign lands over an entire province. Poor and unimportant as are modern English plays, they have all a strong similarity. A large measure of the likeness may be due to negative influences, but a likeness it is. Blindness or deafness in a number of individuals is as productive of resemblance in expression as a gift of special sharpness of hearing or sight. Those points in which modern dramas most closely approximate are extravagance of incident, neatness of construction, and an all-pervading realism, accompanied by total absence of any attempt at idealization.

Mr. Byron's drama of 'Blow for Blow,' with which the Holborn Theatre opened on Saturday, is in one respect above the level of pieces of its class. It has a certain novelty and freshness of subject. Its leading idea is not in itself prosaic or commonplace, though the treatment goes far to render it so. There is some absolute novelty in the idea of a woman assuming the name and character of a twin sister in order to shame and punish the husband, whose neglect and coldness have been the cause of that sister's death. But Mr. Byron has vulgarized this notion by linking its execution with a scheme of vengeance of the most melo-dramatic character. We are thankful at first for a gleam of inspiration, which might have illumined the whole drama, but find it imprisoned in a lantern and casting a sickly light in one direction, while it renders blacker the darkness all around. We shall afford just so much indication of the plot of 'Blow for Blow' as will render our observations comprehensible. *Mildred Craddock*, the daughter of a fraudulent attorney, is loved by two men, *Linden*, a young sailor, heir to a baronetcy, and *John Drummond*, a clerk in her father's office. While the suit of *Linden* is acceptable to father and daughter, that of *Drummond* is dismissed with scorn by both. Certain impertinences upon which *Drummond* ventures are overheard by the sailor, who horsewhips him. *Drummond* then plots an elaborate scheme of vengeance, which he commences at once to carry out. *Craddock* is first to suffer. By the agency of his clerk he is convicted of forgery, and sentenced to transportation. *Mildred* is removed out of reach of all schemes of revenge, for after marrying *Linden* she dies while her husband is away on a voyage. There remains then *Linden* alone, now Sir Harry *Linden*. After the death of *Mildred* he has again married, and has quitted his profession. Against his happiness *Drummond* successfully plots. *Mildred* had a twin sister, *Alice*, passionately attached to her, though an imprudent marriage had effected a separation between the girls. *Alice*, now poor and deserted by her husband, is ready to believe ill of men, and accepts without hesitation the statement of *Drummond*, that her sister's death was due to the cruelty and desertion of the man she had married. A little inquiry would have shown her the improbability of the story of *Drummond*, of the worthlessness of whose nature she had previously had painful proof. At once she consents to his plans, and lends him her aid. *Drummond* accordingly introduces her to Sir Harry as *Mildred*. So strong is the resemblance that the baronet does not dream of questioning the truth of the story concocted for him. His happy wedded life is rudely disrupted, and the vengeance of *Drummond* is complete. The remainder of the play is occupied with the detection of the imposition that has been successfully practised. Had *Alice* witnessed her sister's death; had she seen her wasted and perishing frame, and learnt from her lips that this ruin was attributable to her

husband,—we can understand her taking strong measures to visit him with retribution. But the manner in which she accepts, without question, a statement unsupported by a jot of evidence, and contradicted by every known fact of her sister's past career, renders her action improbable, and destroys whatever sympathy with her we might otherwise feel. Her action is accordingly repellent. We see only its treachery and cruelty. Nothing can be more fatal to the dignity which is indispensable to tragedy than inadequacy of motive to account for action. Here motive appears not only inadequate, but out of all proportion. Such fault as we have found applies to what is best in the drama. When we come to general execution, a verdict of stronger condemnation is required. Mr. Byron has some tragic power and some humour. So strangely and indiscriminately does he employ them that, though it might be harsh to call his burlesque tragedy, a large measure of his tragedy is undoubtedly burlesque. His comic scenes are composed of the wildest of extravagancies, and are mixed in most inartistic fashion with scenes of pathos. His characters indulge in absurd puns, and in a style of dialogue permissible only in burlesque and farce. Our sense of probability is shocked by finding a man of absolutely barbarous ignorance and vulgarity admitted, on a chance acquaintance, into fashionable society; while ladies of rank and intelligence to whom he is introduced only suspect he is not all for which he passes. The comic scenes are wholly indefensible, and are prolonged until they become wearisome. A curious instance of anti-climax may be culled from the more serious portions of the play. *Drummond* explains to *Alice* the mode of her sister's death, using for the purpose language cunningly devised to inflame her. He rouses accordingly her passion to white heat, until, when he demands what would she do had she in her power the man she has so many reasons to hate, we wait almost breathless for the one or two sharp and terrible words of malediction and threatening which should follow. None such come. *Alice* goes back to a state of calm, and works herself up again to the same point at which she had previously arrived. A favourable verdict was passed by the audience upon this play. Some slightly hostile manifestations were repressed early in the evening. The tragic and comic portions of the drama were equally to the taste of the majority of those assembled.

Miss Foote acted well as *Mildred Craddock*, and afterwards as *Alice Petherick*, displaying quiet pathos and real power, together with artistic sense and delicacy not often exhibited. Mr. J. C. Cowper gave a clever impersonation of *John Drummond*, acting with great force in most scenes, and over-acting once only, when admitted into the drawing-room of Sir Harry *Linden*. Mr. Honey overdid his part in his usual style. Miss Jane Rignold, who played Sir Harry's second wife, and Mr. Haynes, who enacted the baronet, are new to London, and are actors of promise. It may save Mr. Byron from a second blunder to know that the title, *Lady Ethel*, is inappropriate to the wife of a baronet, indicating as it does the daughter of an earl or of some nobleman of higher rank.

LYCEUM.—Mr. Fairclough's *Othello* is a higher and more successful performance than his *Hamlet*. *Othello's* nature is altogether more comprehensible than that of the Dane; his motives to action are fewer and less complex. To the simplicity and freedom from rant and extravagance which marked his previous performance Mr. Fairclough has added accordingly some grasp of a character far easier to embody than that he first attempted. Intelligence is the distinguishing characteristic of his *Othello*. In no previous performance of the character do we recall so little of which to complain. A student of Shakespeare may see the impersonation with pleasure from first to last, and may derive sufficient gratification from it scarcely to note its want of inspiration. Only afterwards will he recall that his nature has been tickled rather than stirred—that the pleasurable faculties, and not the emotional, have been aroused. In days wherein wholly uneducated and almost illiterate pretenders to art form nine-tenths of those generally spoken of as tragic

actors, it is pleasant to find a man who can give an intellectual exposition of Othello, even though his presentment lack the subtle touches and the power almost magical over an audience of which, with a faith not untinged with scepticism, we of the present generation read. What was best in the representation was the manner in which the great duel between Othello and Iago, in the third act, was fought. Othello's acceptance of the suggestions of Iago is not immediate. The vehement language he employs is due to alarm yet vague and shapeless. He does not during the first interview with Iago give definite form to a single doubt. He is in a whirl of conflicting emotions and fears, aptly expressed in the remarkable lines of Thomas Heywood,—

Fear and amazement play against his heart  
Even as a madman beats upon a drum.

Not until he has had time to brood and the poison leisure to operate does absolute mistrust of his wife influence his conduct. No recent actor has marked sufficiently the distinction between the vague horror and undirected anger of Othello in these earlier scenes, and the sombre and deadly rage he exhibits after the incident of the handkerchief has afforded confirmation to his fears. Mr. Fairclough has apparently bestowed much care upon these scenes, and the gradations of anger and doubt in Othello's mind are well exhibited. Not seldom in his attempts to strengthen a speech by a new rendering Mr. Fairclough really weakens it. An instance of this kind occurs in the speech of Othello after Iago's imputations upon the morality of the Venetian matrons, that they "let Heaven see the pranks they dare not show their husbands."—"Dost thou say so?" asks the poor distracted Moor, in whose mind a hundred things unimportant in themselves are uniting to produce an image of horror and menace. Mr. Fairclough, placing an accent on the word *thou*, weakens the sense, and causes Othello to accept, as on unimpeachable authority, a statement the truth of which he is yet in his heart scarcely prepared to grant. Many similar instances might easily be advanced. There is, however, much more to praise than to blame in the entire representation. The remaining parts were sustained in customary fashion. Mr. Marston's Iago was almost ostentatiously honest-looking. Miss Fanny Addison was *Desdemona*, Mr. Alfred Nelson *Roderigo*, and Mr. G. F. Neville *Cassio*.

**SURREY.**—A sensation drama, by Mr. Watts Phillips, entitled 'Land Rats and Water Rats,' was produced at the Surrey Theatre on Saturday evening last. Though well suited to Surrey audiences, this piece misses its chance of enduring success owing to the fact that its principal situation—that of one of the characters being left on a line of railway to be run over by an approaching train—has been anticipated in Mr. Boucicault's drama of 'After Dark,' now performing at the Princess's. The treatment of the opening portion of 'Land Rats and Water Rats' is altogether unlike that of 'After Dark,' and is, indeed, as the author proclaims it, original, so far as a re-adaptation of well-used materials can deserve the title. A principal object of those who cater for the modern stage is to furnish opportunities to the scene-shifter. In this respect the drama is all that can be desired. Messrs. Grieve and Callcott have supplied to it some admirable views of well-known localities in London. Messrs. Shepherd and Creswick both have parts in the piece, the former playing a nondescript character, half lawyer and half dustman, the second enacting a mechanic, whose sentiments and actions are above his station. The success of piece and performance was complete.

#### MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.

THE New Royalty Theatre re-opened on Saturday evening, under the management of Miss Oliver. Mr. Burnand's burlesque of 'Black-Eyed Susan' was the principal feature in the performance. A new burlesque, by the same author, is in rehearsal, and will shortly be produced.

Mr. Disraeli's tragedy of 'Alarcos' has been withdrawn from the stage of Astley's, and 'The

'Ticket-of-Leave Man' substituted. A spectacular entertainment of the kind once exclusively performed at Astley's is announced for production on Saturday. It is entitled 'The Conquest of Magdala.'

Mr. Sefton Parry proposes to open the new Globe Theatre on the 31st of October, with a drama, not yet named, by Mr. H. J. Byron. A burlesque by the same author will be produced the following Saturday. Miss Neilson will, it is hoped, play a leading part in the first piece.

Mr. Watts Phillips is writing a new drama, to be produced at the Holborn after the run of 'Blow for Blow' is finished.

A new drama, by Dr. Westland Marston, will be produced soon after the opening of the Haymarket Theatre.

Sadler's Wells, now under the management of Miss Hazlewood, formerly director of the Greenwich Theatre, opened on Saturday evening with 'Romeo and Juliet,' in which Miss Hazlewood played *Juliet*, and Planche's burlesque of 'Theseus and Ariadne.'

A new farce, entitled 'Tomkins the Troubadour,' was produced at the Queen's Theatre on Monday evening. It is a piece of extravagance which causes a good deal of laughter by a complete defiance of all sense and probability. Mr. Lionel Brough supports the part of the hero, a man whose vocal gifts secure him a wife and a fortune. He was very funny, but a trifle "o'erstepped the modesty of nature," even as that modesty should be respected in a farce.

M. Bagier publishes his list of engagements for the forthcoming season of Italian Opera in Paris. The *prime donne* include Adelina Patti, Minnie Hauk, Ilma de Murka, Ricci, Krauss, Grossi, Rosello, Vestri. The tenors are Fraschini, Tamberlich, Nicolini, Ubaldi, Palermi and Arnoldi; the baritones, Della Sedie, Verger, Steller, Agnesi; and the *bassi*, Ciampi, Wallenrider, Zimelli, Mercuriali, Fallar. Mdle. Urban is the leading mime.

Rossini has signified, in a clever and characteristic letter, his acceptance of the dedication of the new 'Barbieri di Sevilgia' of D'all' Argine.

A new "buffoonery," by MM. Chivot and Duru, has been read at the Bouffes Parisiens. Offenbach will supply the music.

'Jeanne de Ligneris,' a new drama, with which the Odéon re-opened, is a complete failure. It is in verse, and is by M. Marc Bayeux. A bald plot and more inflated language have not often been conjoined. Berton and Mdle. Antonine are, it is said, engaged at this theatre to appear in a new comedy, by M. Victorien Sardou, originally written for the Vaudeville.

A bust of Rosa Chéri and one of Bouffé, in the character of *Pauvre Jacques*, have been placed in the foyer of the Gymnase. They are the work of Mdle. Pauline Bouffé,—one of them, we presume, being a filial tribute.

M. Gondinet is engaged upon a five-act prose comedy for the Théâtre Français.

The Palais Royal will shortly produce a fairy spectacle, by MM. Chivot and Duru.

Several Parisian theatres, including the Athénée, the Déjazet and others, have opened, but no novelties have as yet been produced.

Mdle. Nilsson was to sing this week at Baden and Wiesbaden. She has attracted hosts of strangers to the Grand Opéra all through the hot weather from which we have been suffering.

The success of M. Thomas's 'Hamlet' must, however, be partly attributed to M. Faure, whose impersonation is masterly in the extreme.

The house at Bonn in which Beethoven was born is now for sale.

Charlotte Birch Pfeiffer, who has died at Berlin in her sixty-eighth year, was one of the most prolific of German dramatists and adapters, and was also an actress of great merit. She was born at Stuttgart, and made her first appearance at Munich when only thirteen. She was for a long time a director of the theatre at Zurich, which, under her management, turned out some of the best actors Germany now possesses. In addition to her plays, she wrote several romances.

#### MISCELLANEA

**Shakespeare Jottings.**—In your Miscellanea of the 5th inst. are two ingenious remarks by Mr. R. Street on two well-known passages in Shakespeare. With regard to the first, "and dog will have his bay," instead of the customary "day," I can assure him that the suggestion was made, to my knowledge, more than forty-five years ago. I was taught by my father, when repeating the passage, to say *bay* for *day*.—With regard to the remark about the Prince of Morocco ('Merchant of Venice'), it shows, I admit, local geographical knowledge; but methinks Mr. Street has lost sight of Act i. sc. 2, where Portia and Nerissa run through the various qualifications of the several suitors drawn together by the world-spread renown of Portia's wealth, beauty, &c. The Prince of Morocco, allured by the attractions I have mentioned, stamps the repute of Portia; whereas the Prince of Morocco only designates "a calculating" next-door neighbour.

H. R. FORREST.

**A Geographical Peculiarity.**—It may interest some of your readers to know that there is another bifurcation very similar to the Perthshire one. The stream is one of several named Medwyn, all issuing from the southern extremity of the Pentland range. I am not sure whether the precise point is in Peebles or Lanark county, or on the boundary-line, but it is quite close to the mansion-house of Garvald, in the parish of West Linton. At that spot part of the Medwyn is (I believe artificially, but very easily,) diverted, for the purpose of watering a meadow; and the water so diverted, instead of returning to the Medwyn, finds its way to the Tarth. Now, the Medwyn flows into the Clyde, the Tarth into the Tweed; and, consequently, the effect of this bifurcation is to insulate a very large part of the country indeed, no less than all that lies to the south of those two rivers, and all that lies to the north as well. So that that slight meadow-watering really converts the island of Great Britain into two distinct islands. The facts on which I found this conclusion I have often heard from friends resident in the locality; though whether the divergence of the stream be now permanent or only occasional I am not at present able to say.

ARCH. BROWN.

**Definition of the word Sect.**—I should be obliged if any of your readers could help me as to the derivation of the word *sect*. Does it come from *seco* (having participle *sectus*), to cut, out, asunder or separate,—thus implying a separation from the Church? or is it from *sector* (the frequentative verb of *sequor*), to follow, run after or imitate, when it would mean a community following some founder or leader? The probabilities seem pretty equally balanced between the two derivations. It is, however, matter of interest, and may perhaps throw some light upon the subject, to know that *sequor* itself comes from *seco*, while the original of the latter is *σχιζω* (*scindo*), from which—whatever we may think of the origin of *sect*—*σχίσμα* or *schism* undoubtedly springs. I should be glad to be referred to anything which can elucidate the question. F.

**Irish Antiquities.**—The quiet, sarcastic review of Mr. Keane's work on 'Irish Towers and Temples,' which appeared in your issue of August 8th, shows that the writer knew what Irish architecture really is, and could enjoy the absurdities of this most absurd of all "paradoxers" (by the way, why does not Prof. De Morgan clap him into his "Budget"?). I only object to one sentence in the review. After quoting Mr. Keane's "opinion" as to the shape of the roof of the Ark, the reviewer says: "This is a sample of the fanciful in a book which, nevertheless, is not discreditable to enthusiastic Irish antiquarianism." Enthusiasm is a good thing in "antiquarianism" as in any other field of study, but surely if it leads Irish antiquaries to such vagaries as Mr. Keane indulges in one may leave out the negative, and pronounce it "discreditable." I am happy to think, however, that Mr. Keane is almost *sua generis*, and that his peculiar type of enthusiasm does not characterize true "Irish antiquarianism." AN IRISH ANTIQUARY.

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12 Fish Spoons.....	6 0 0	8 0 0	8 0 0	9 0 0
12 Mustard Spoons.....	6 0 0	8 0 0	8 0 0	9 0 0
12 Pair of Sugar Tongs.....	1 4 0	1 10 0	1 10 0	1 15 0
12 Pair of Fish Carvers.....	1 4 0	1 10 0	1 10 0	1 15 0
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